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THE FIFTH YEARBOOK  
OF THE  
NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC  
STUDY OF EDUCATION

PART I  
ON THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN ELEMENTARY  
AND HIGH SCHOOLS

BY  
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MEETINGS FOR THE DISCUSSION OF THIS YEARBOOK WILL BE HELD ON MONDAY,  
FEBRUARY 26, 1906, AT 7:45 P. M., IN THE WARREN MEMORIAL CHURCH,  
AND ON WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 28, AT 4 P. M., IN THE LECTURE ROOM OF THE  
FIRST CHRISTIAN CHURCH, LOUISVILLE, KENTUCKY

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# THE FIFTH YEARBOOK---PART I

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## ON THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH

### I

#### THE POINT OF VIEW

One who takes life seriously, and so undertakes to discharge an important duty to society, will be unconsciously influenced and in a large measure directed in the performance of that duty by his "view of the world." Is the universe one process of infinite complexity—an organized unity—or is it a conglomerate of misfits at which its Creator and man must be ever tinkering to prevent anarchy? It is especially fitting that the teacher should ask himself such questions, and there is a peculiar fitness that the teacher of English should make his view clear on this matter.

Man's view of the world involves his view of the purpose of his being in the world. Every one must estimate this purpose and answer all similar questions for himself. No individual and no institution can do it for him, provided, always, that he takes life seriously.

It seems as if human thought is settling down to the conviction that the universe is a process composed of an infinite number of inter-related processes. Emerson would call the motor force which organizes these processes into a system, the instinct of the process. Instinctively star-dust evolves into Nebulae; by instinct a Nebula becomes a planetary system; instinctively gravitation supplies the conditions for chemism, and chemism for life; the crowning work of this instinctive process is the coming into being of feeling and of the self-conscious soul. Thus far, objective science seems to trace, in the rough, the process of creation.\*

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\*By virtue of the quite recent discoveries of Dr. M. von Schroen, professor in pathology at the University of Naples, Italy, it is scientifically

Subjective science now takes up the investigation with a view to discover something of the nature of this instinct, or primal cause, and the soul's relation thereto. It discovers that feeling, as sensation of pain and pleasure, evolves into emotion, and that one of its specializations aspires to attain some end, or creates ideals. In response to these desires the soul adds intelligence to direct, and will to persist in the attainment of these desires. That all these phases of activity grow in response to the need of this instinctive potency to attain more fully than it has yet attained, seems to be a legitimate conclusion. The working principle of evolution is that changes come as the need of these changes becomes imperative.

Investigation of the act by which the soul, as intellect, can *judge* and so learn how to direct its aspiration to the attainment of its object, reveals a process so new and wonderful as to place the being who can do this thing far above any other class of beings that has appeared upon the earth. By this new process the instinctive soul of the world comes into consciousness of itself. It can project itself as object, and at the same time identify this object with itself as subject. Such an act no lower order of being can perform. The product is the judgment "I am myself."

The name "I am" was given by the Jews to the Supreme Being; as if they regarded the making of this judgment a symbol of supreme power.

This power to know the self involves the power to know any single attribute of the self by the same process—as "I am

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legitimate to speak of a genesis of species in the mineral kingdom, as well as in the kingdoms of plants and animals.

The biological view held hitherto by science admits of no other procreative agencies than those manifested in the vegetable and animal cell. But Prof. von Schroen, under the full blaze of scientific test-conditions, makes the discovery that the formation of a crystal proceeds under the sway of the same principles of growth as do the formative processes in the organic world. And he assures us with the seriousness of a savant, that the world around us in its undivided entirety, is a solidary, inter-related, identical unit, animated by the same life impulse, proceeding along the same processes of growth and development, and heading for the same ultimate goal of love, intelligence and power.—Dr. Axel Emil Gibson, *The Dietetic and Hygienic Gazette*, July, 1905.

thinking," in which the ego utters its consciousness that *thinking*, the object in its judgment, is identical with its own act and to that extent the same as the subject. This process of the self in making itself its own object is called by the philosophers "subject-object."

This objectification of the self and its return enriched is the process and the only process by which knowledge is accumulated, and so the power to direct the aspiration in the pursuit of that to which it aspires is gained. Man early formed the judgment, "I am thinking," but it would remain a merely analytic judgment until the act returned enriched by some addition, such as *that the earth is a sphere*. Such an addition makes the synthetic judgment and is the sole instrument by which the soul's knowledge is augmented.

It is this instinctively judging self, considered apart as a distinct phase of the ego's activity, which is called self-consciousness. In the act of forming a judgment it ever separates into subject and object, and at the same time identifies the subject with the object. In this act the self is both subject and object. Every completed judgment begins with the thinker or self and is completed when its other self, the object, is identified with the subject. Some one has said (Dr. Harris, I think,) that in each stage of the process of evolution of the world, this active instinct has been striving "to look itself in the face." This is attained in man.

Now, from this investigation, it appears inevitable—

1. That all of one's knowledge is brought into existence by himself. It is knowledge when it conforms, is consistent with, the experience of others and with his own experience. He creates many predicates for his judgments which are not knowledge, e. g., in his dreams and flights of fancy. His imagination is more apt to supply predicates that are true. His senses are his principal sources of knowledge until he attains the age of reason.

2. There is cumulative evidence as well as instinctive faith that there is a correspondence between the processes in the ex-

ternal world—the macrocosm—and those of our own consciousness—our microcosm—which we instinctively act upon and live by.

3. Modern science proclaims that the external world is a reality which man recreates to the extent that he knows it. The soul, like Kepler, the astronomer, is “thinking God’s thought after him.” The inference is irresistible that he does it by a similar method.

Man desires to know the truth, and the purpose of his intellectual life is to discover the way and direct his steps in the pursuit of it. This non-materialistic view of the external world is a hard doctrine for the mass of mankind, but the recent discoveries of physical science seem to establish the fact that there is no dead matter in the world; that matter is like thought in that both are processes or phases of activity; they differ in that one is a different form of activity from the other.

This cycle of Source, Separation, and Return, which man discovers in his own thought, has many correspondencies in the processes of the natural world. From its source in the ocean the stream rises in vapor, falls upon the earth and returns again to the sea. From the seed comes the plant, which produces again the seed. Morning rises into day, sinks in the west, and rises again in the east.

The solar system rises from star-dust and is to pass on into star-dust again. Everything in nature moves in cycles or in arcs of cycles. This has a startling significance.

Again, in the world of man we find similar correspondencies:

In the American government the power is in the people collectively; they embody it in a chosen administration and at stated periods it returns again to the people. In the court of justice the deed which the individual citizen has uttered is made to return upon the doer.

In institutional history we can find this principle of separation and return ever active. This is especially true in literature. Original Source, Separation, and Return, are the found-



ation process from which every great literary creation grows. It is found—expressed or implied—in every system of religious thought that man has constructed.

Man is coming now to the conviction that the Absolute Cycle from which all minor processes spring, is the Absolute Ego or Person; the objectified system of the processes of Nature; and the return from this separation to the source through man, the image of his Creator, who is to become "perfect as his Father in heaven is perfect."

Now the interesting fact to be inferred—by what appears to be a scientific procedure — from the acknowledged facts above set forth, is that the human soul is the active agency by which the cycle of the universe is to be finally completed. Man is to become identified with God by thinking his thought, willing his will, and thus achieving his love. To love with a divine love is the highest aspiration conceivable to man.

God has created man, by this long process of evolution, with power to re-create God in some measure and in an infinitely increasing measure as he advances in his evolution, by loving, willing, and thinking, what is God's love, and will, and thought. It is thus that he shall become one with the Father, as was taught by Jesus of Nazareth.

From such a view of the world as is outlined above metaphysics disappears and an enlarged psychology takes its place; a psychology that includes nature and God in its scope.

Metaphysics has been thought to deal with the true reality, while physics, including psychology, concerned itself with the phenomenal, the mere appearance (illusion) of the reality. But God, the world, and man are all one psychical process, no arc of which is any more illusion than another. Since man knows only what he creates or re-creates, every science and every object which man knows is a psychological process. God actualizes his psychical processes. Man with his present limited powers can only realize his. But man can actualize his own process to some degree for he can create a form of government that goes on actualizing itself in states and in small communities.

But here opens up a line of thought which is foreign to the purpose of this writing.

We repeat that the Absolute Psyche is identical with the limited psyche, in some degree, in every object of nature and in every human soul. It is the function of education and especially of school education to recognize in the child the possibility of a continuous growth in this identity and to promote it in every way that is open to the school.

It is by the copious inflow of the soul of the universe into the soul of the child through avenues which it is possible for the school to open, that his life becomes in a larger measure one with the soul of the universe in love, in knowledge, and in will. Growth toward manhood is not dependent, in America, upon the unconscious working of the principle of the survival of the fittest, or natural selection, but it has become the conscious purpose of the various institutions of society, and especially of the home and the school. The church is awaking to the conviction that the new view of the world opened up by the discovery of the evolutionary process of creation is a call to new methods and different material for the religious education of the children. We are all coming to see that there is no gulf between secular and religious instruction; but that both have the common purpose of making the great love of the universe prevail in the hearts and purposes of men by man's thinking His thought, the true, expressed in nature and in the lives of men, and by willing His will in our deeds of justice, mercy, and loving kindness.

"But," it is objected, "You are shattering the foundations of thought, rock-ribbed and ancient as Greek philosophy. To re-construct life upon such a basis, and to so interpret the purpose of instruction, would require that we reconstruct our system of thought, which we have spent our lives in building up. You are confounding metaphysics with psychology, the religious with the secular, the science of nature and natural religion with religion."

Well, this discussion is not addressed to such objectors.

Gallileo, Copernicus, Luther, Socrates, Darwin, Jesus of Nazareth, were crucified in fact or in spirit by such objectors. They are joined to their idols; let them alone. Evolution has opened up a new view of the mutual relations of God, man, and the world.

"New occasions teach new duties."

Life has both its fluid and its congealed strata. Both are necessary. I have often thought that man fortunate who remained hospitable to new fundamental ideas. Evolution seems to be a complex of progressive, stationary, and retrogressive processes. They will all be found at every step in its advance. My purpose is to seek such light from evolution as will illuminate the path to a more natural and rational method of teaching the children.

The truth seems to be that evolution is fast removing some of the foundation stones of the long-established process of thought in more than one department of life, and is putting supports of more modern material in their places. So far no danger of a cataclysm has become apparent. The danger threatening society today comes from the failure in former years to make regnant in the souls of the children the processes which this new view of the world declares to be imperative.

#### GENETIC PSYCHOLOGY

Genetic psychology is founded on the theory of Evolution. Man in his prenatal growth, it is reported, conforms to this theory by passing through a series of forms of the animal kingdom. He enters upon his postnatal career in human form, and with psychical potentialities of great promise but at the zero point of attainment. The symbol of a blank sheet upon which others may write his life will no longer serve. He himself is to do the writing. He is potentially a self-directive being, but his infant self-activity is less than that of the animal world from which he has emerged. The greater his possibilities of attainment in the scale of being, the longer is his period of helpless infancy; as if the soul of the

universe had provided that man, the culminating arc of the great cycle of creation, shall lie fallow for a time in the beginning of his career, while the energies are organizing for the mighty work they are to do.

He has inherited tendencies of body and predisposition of soul from his forbears, human and prehuman, which will prove lines of least resistance in his instinctive efforts to attain. Some of these lead upward, some downward. But history and experience prove that he may be early inoculated with other germs which will draw the nutriment from these inheritances and so slough them off from the process of growth. The same principle acts in the lower world under the greater limitations of that world. This invariable law of growth is the basis of the teacher's hope; more than that, it is the basis of his firm reliance on the effectiveness of education in redeeming the soul from its degenerating tendencies and in promoting its advancement toward manhood.

The child, after birth, enters upon a series of psychical changes which repeat the psychical changes in the growth of the race in a way corresponding to the physical changes in the prenatal growth of the body. The force and influence of these inheritances may be, and often have been, overestimated. But they have force and influence all the same, and when interpreted in a large way are of commanding importance in determining the matter and method of procedure in different stages of the child's development.

1. The feeling instinct was the commanding activity in the infancy of the race; it is the commanding activity in the early years of childhood. Indeed is it the commanding activity in every stage of life. Pleasure, happiness, joy, love, stimulate and foster the growth of the soul; painful emotions retard it. When the pleasurable affections attach themselves most strongly and most actively to the educative process which the school seeks to foster, the soul advances most rapidly in its achievement of character. The child enters life with a song in its heart and

on its lips, also, unless there is an abnormal condition of the body.

It is the contention of the writer that feeling, in some of its forms, is the controlling activity in the lives of men, as Divine Love is the commanding activity of the universe.

2. Another process, inherited from the remotest ancestors of the child, is memory—"the thread," as Emerson remarks, "upon which the beads of life are strung"—the matrix or cement which holds the experiences of the past in close contact with the consciousness of the present. It has been ever present on the evolutionary journey from star-dust to child, being the force of gravity which holds the universe together and becoming conscious first as feeling. The child's memory is of that rugged, wild, tenacious sort, holding a multitude of unrelated facts together, without purpose and without effort, provided only that joy attends upon the act. This immense native power may be dissipated by the unwise influence of the home and the school: memory, without which there were no connected life, and no possibility of growth.

3. Besides these endowments the child has brought with him from below the instinct of imitation, without whose introduction to the new world which he has entered he would be in sore distress; but which, continuing too long as guide, works irreparable injury by arresting the growth of the child. Mechanism is an essential adjunct to development, but imitation is too primitive a form to be fostered after the power of personal initiative has begun to bud. It is ever active in the life of man without any fostering care.

4. The imagination of the normal child overtops every other distinctively human instinct. It is the creative instinct of the infant soul, running wild as it once did in his ancestors. It is his richest inheritance and should be given a free rein. It calls for direction but its repression is a fatal mistake.

The affections must run parallel with all intellectual activities, and these latter must be employed in directing the pursuit of educative desires. Giving direction to the realization of

desires was the original and yet remains the normal function of the intellect.

The will naturally follows the stimulus of the desires in kindergarten and primary training. The child knows no distinction between feeling, will, and intellect, but the teacher needs to make such in her own thought, in determining the processes she will use.

5. Later, especially in boys, there comes a time when imagination and the benevolent affections yield their leadership to a sterner motive, which may be characterized roughly as love of power. This strikes the normal boy at about the age of ten. The body is compact and strong and the intellect is alert in the achievements of physical prowess.

This condition seems to be an inheritance from a remote ancestry, when savage and brutal man combined in tribes for defense against enemies, or for aggressive warfare. This stage of evolution probably continued for many ages. It was the boy epoch in the growth of the race, which fact would seem to justify its occurrence in the life of the modern boy. It was not in individual strife so much as in tribal struggle under the law of the survival of the fittest, that man developed toward manhood in this epoch. We seem to be far at sea and widely variant in our conclusions as to the natural method of solving the educational problems of this stage. But two things are suggestive:

(a) The physical and mental vigor of the child suggests that this is a period for driving him hard in mastering the mechanics of knowledge.

(b) His ideals are not lofty but he has an active appreciation of justice and loves conflict and victory. His Quixotic disposition and impulses open the way to the ingenious teacher to set him battling with the giants that beset his path.

6. Finally comes the transition from boyhood and girlhood to manhood and womanhood; a period, until recently, not differentiated from others in the onward progress of life. Dr. G. Stanley Hall's great work, *Adolescence*, has revealed much

that was formerly unknown, and awakened a widespread conviction of the supreme importance of further study of the problems therein suggested.

I have called attention to some of the guideposts and danger signals along the way of education from infancy to maturity which genetic psychology has set up. They point to the affirmative instruction and training, both in matter and method, required in these different periods of development; and they suggest a rational method of dealing with the negative tendencies toward degeneration involved in the process of evolution.

The purpose of this elaboration of a point of view from which to teach English has been to suggest the need of having some theory of the universe, consistent with the experiences of the human race, by which to guide our course in fitting the young to pursue a rational and inspiring theory and practice of life. This point of view is not a new one to the modern scientist, but most school teachers have not yet seriously studied its requirements in the teaching of the child. The theory of an evolution *which is directed by a purpose* is the central thought of a newer education than that of our grandfathers.

## II

### GENERAL PRINCIPLES AND SUGGESTIONS

1. The teacher of English or of any other subject, whether in the kindergarten or in other grades, will need to take account of the psychic endowments of the child. Imitation, memory, and imagination, the child's instinctive soul activities of immense power, have been gathering and putting into form the experiences of life since the first dawn of consciousness. With this accumulation as a basis, the school seeks to create an environment which shall direct these native impulses along lines that shall be in harmony with the natural growth of body and soul, and shall at the same time put order and system, in some measure, into the processes of this growth.

2. The governing principles of the *survival of the fittest* and of *unconscious selection*, under whose direction the race slowly advanced through long ages, seem to have worked regardless of the great waste of energy that attended the slow progress in the development of the soul. The school is these unconscious processes now evolved into self-consciousness, and it undertakes to direct the growth of the child toward the goal of his own self-consciousness by a shorter and more economical route. Adopting the figure of Socrates, the school is the midwife presiding over the birth of the child's soul. It is not until recently, and even now only in spots, that the school has risen to this consciousness of its function.

The instinct of the vegetable world has recently become conscious in the florist and the horticulturist; and so too has the instinct of the animal world as manifest in the higher attainments of animal life made possible by man's knowledge. It was not long ago that Rousseau declared that unconscious nature was the only fit teacher of the child, and the educated class has been proclaiming with approval his pedagogical doctrine for a hundred years. Man has only recently discovered that he himself is the instinct of the world awakened to the consciousness of his divine office in advancing creation.

3. The imaginative instinct of the child is poetical. Imitation and memory are prosaic. In English, as well as in everything else, the soul should feed upon the best that it can assimilate. Literature is found in every grade of English composition from Mother Goose to Shakespeare. The artistic sense belongs to the emotions and is prominently active from the beginning of conscious life. Give in every grade the best that the stage of development will receive gladly. But it is of supreme importance that in attempting to obey this injunction there shall be no attempt to force the growth of a literary taste. The child can appreciate beyond its power to think, but not far beyond. It is a common error to mistake the influence of the teacher's musical voice and speaking countenance, and sympathetic gesture upon the child, for appreciation of the



English. The story of *The Old Dog Bowser*, has many applications throughout the journey of life.

4. Another injunction of nearly equal importance is that we leave food which is palatable to nourish the soul after its own fashion. Not that its impression is to be left to fade away; by no means. Opportunities must be given it to express itself in some other connection. But having planted the seed wait for the fruitage; not neglecting, in the meantime, the dew and the rain, and the fertilization of the soil.

5. Another too prevalent error is to confound *thoroughness* with *exhaustiveness*. Children cannot study anything exhaustively; but what is worth doing should be done thoroughly. It is worth while that the child shall live as much as possible in an atmosphere of good English. This means the reading, listening to, and reciting of good literature, and an abundance of it. There should be a wide range of choice, also. A *feeling* for literature is an endowment common to all. A *form* attractive to one may repel another. What is congenial—gives pleasure—should not be dismissed until its impression has been made. But the teacher will not gauge the impression to be made upon the child by the impression made upon himself. Our ability to put ourselves in the place of the child will be the measure of our success.

6. The last suggestion, and one of commanding importance, is that the English studies at every stage shall be valued by the teacher chiefly for their influence in forming ideals of life. The sordid aspect of life is impressed upon the child at every turn. It is everywhere in evidence except in comparatively few homes. The child is not having a fair chance. If the school does not help him to one there is little hope that our present "hot pace" in moral degeneration, especially in the economic world, will be arrested in the near future.

The purpose of this writing is to set forth the governing ideas which should determine the teacher's practice in giving instruction and training in English in the elementary and high schools. The details of the process are not attempted and

would be of little value to the experienced teacher. A hand book of practice for each grade, for teachers of little experience, would be necessary to fully complete the writer's idea of a pedagogical discussion of the subject.

English is the life of the people who use the English tongue, in so far as that life is uttered in our language. It is one of the infinite variety of forms in which the life of the world utters itself. English is a live thing, therefore; many of our failures in teaching it arise from presenting it as a dead thing. Life is its substance, its meaning, and the word is its form. The meaning can be no more separated from the word than the vital force can be separated from the tree. When the life has gone out of the word it is no longer a word.

Language grows in the child, as in the race, from inarticulate to articulate sounds. The first utterance of the child is through musical tones, and is an expression of love; the joy of living. Until he enters school, the words he uses are for the most part, what Dr. Earle calls "presentive words," as distinguished from the symbolic. The meaning and the form are one and the same to the child. He, like the lowest savages, cannot conceive of a thing that is called by a strange name. Alfred Russell Wallace tells of the natives of the Malay Archipelago who would not believe that there could be any country called "England." Such a name was too absurd. "No country could be called that." The same incredulity has been noticed in children. In his *Philology of the English Tongue* Dr. Earle tells of a six-year-old boy who refused to call his brother, in their play, "Polyhymnia," declaring "nobody couldn't be called that, I'm sure." A polyhymnia was to him a thing unknown and impossible.

Not until the child begins to use graphic signs in expressing meaning does he approach any clear distinction between meaning and its form. So fixed is his habit of sounding every meaning that during the early years of his school life, and sometimes on to old age, he translates the graphic symbol into

a sound-meaning before he can use it. To attach meaning directly to the graphic form is a later acquirement, if it is ever learned. The graphic symbol is to him the sign of the meaning as *sounded*. Considerable analytic power must be acquired before the distinction between the *sound* and its meaning can be made. This conscious distinction between sign and thing signified, in learning English, is often attempted too early in even our best schools.

The early introduction of graphic English, so prevalent in all good schools, first by the teacher on the blackboard before the children, and later by the children themselves, is one of the most valuable improvements in the work in English in the primary grades during the last century. Like all other distinctions in the child's progress in knowledge this one, between meaning and form, is long in the sub-consciousness before it rises above the threshold.

The mastery of the graphic and the sound elements of words is the mechanical demand of the early period of English teaching. Without such mastery progress is slow and uninteresting. Much depends upon the method pursued. The key to the natural and most effective method is found in the way the child has learned to talk before entering school. During that period, the meaning has always preceded or accompanied the expression. The school seeks to teach expression by suggesting an interesting meaning which the child deems it worth while to express. While the meaning has the major emphasis in all teaching of English, there are certain drill exercises for the mastery of graphic and sound forms that must be practiced with systematic regularity. But these drill exercises should never be regarded as lessons in English. As well might the carpenter say that the making or repairing of his tools belongs to the process of building a house. The study of the construction of words can be made as interesting as any other, but it should never be mistaken for a study of English. And yet the use of the word in English should not be ignored while teaching its form.

The sound-form must be mastered as the foundation for oral expression, and the graphic form for proper eye-symbols of meanings. Power to spell words by sounds and by letters (analysis), and to construct words in oral and written composition (synthesis), is a necessary part of the child's equipment for learning English. It is a mistake to assume that this can be done incidentally. It is as great a mistake, in the lower grades, to interrupt him in his attempts to express his own English, by too exacting demands for correct forms, oral or graphic. If his form grows *pari passu* with his power to think it will best correspond with his natural growth in other things.

Along with this mastery of forms and as the commanding activity in it, are—

Interpretations of English (reading).

Conversations (oral composition).

Written compositions.

Much reading is the source of power in interpreting the printed page. Conversation and oral reproduction by the pupil of things learned cultivate the power of personal initiative and alertness in thinking. Written composition gives the child practice in original thought and in its expression by the long circuit through the fingers.

This elementary field is the one to which the injunction to learn by doing is especially applicable. It has been neglected and often wholly ignored in the practice of the past, and the poor results in English in the schools are largely due to this neglect.

"As the twig is bent the tree inclines" is especially applicable to the teaching of English.

The leading mind-forming activity of this elementary period may be characterized as sub-conscious synthesis. It should be continued until the child begins to feel an interest in analyzing things.

The psychic activities of synthesis and analysis involved in the study of English from the primary grades to the end of the high-school course, may be roughly outlined as follows:

1. Unconscious synthesis and analysis during the first six grades, with the analytic factor slowly rising above the threshold of consciousness.

2. The movement during the last two years of the grammar school and the first year of the high school is analysis as the leading conscious activity with a growing consciousness of synthesis or unity of the parts into an organic whole. An organized unity may be apprehended years before it is comprehended.

3. The third phase of growth, which it is the function of the high school to nourish, gives the major emphasis to conscious synthesis, and makes conscious analysis auxiliary to this end. The result sought is a comprehended organized unity not only of the subjects studied but of all studies into a view of the universe as an organic unity. A rational view of the world is impossible to one who cannot see the unity of all its elements, both physical and spiritual.

I have said that the high school should *nourish* this growth. No one is educated until he has attained it. How far we are from its attainment may be illustrated by the answer given by one of America's literary scholars to the following question, sent out by the National Council of Education:

"What changes in existing conditions will tend to make our schools (elementary, secondary, and higher) more effective in preparing the pupils for real social efficiency?"

He answers the question thus:

1. "Simplified spelling."
2. "Simplified spelling."
3. "Simplified spelling."
4. "More drill in arithmetical computations and less puzzling problems."

This gentleman is the maker and the publisher of many excellent books which take a larger view of our needs, and he ranks among the men whom the National Council deem it important to consult upon this fundamental question, and they publish this contribution of his to the literature of education.

## III

## METHOD IN PRIMARY GRADES

A modern method of teaching ought to look for its foundation purpose and principles in the modern view of the world. It has been assumed in our introduction that this purpose is to make the great Love active in the universe, prevail in the hearts and purposes of men through thinking His thought—the true in nature and in the lives of men—and by willing His will in their deeds of justice, of mercy, and of loving kindness.

The child in the kindergarten and the primary school is very close to the animal world—to nature. Words are not, in the present stage of the development of the race, his inheritance. But he has a multitude of other inherited ways of expressing himself. These he brings with him to the school, and the school should make free use of them. These strong, wild psychical powers of imitation, imagination, and memory which are clamoring for exercise and expression must not be repressed, but, rather, directed in ways that will give a variety of interesting experiences. He is to work *consciously* to attain a purpose under the prompting of a *desire*. The school's function is to supply the environment favorable to the awakening of the desire. This describes the spirit of the directive influence of the kindergarten, and the primary school; indeed, of all elementary and high schools. The manner of administering this spirit is the province of the teacher, solely. Her speech, manner, and voice are three elements of the child's environment of commanding influence. The order in which these elements are named suggests the order of their increasing influence. A musical and sympathetic voice, when the spirit of the teacher is expressed by it, is of the first importance; but a sweet spirit will shine from the eyes, and find utterance in the words and tones even when both are inadequate. But happy is the primary teacher who has a sympathetic, musical and cultivated voice.

The main reliance for the education of these children is on the conversation between children and teacher, hence the need that the teacher talk well. Much talking on themes of interest, which lead to the coming in of educative ideas and feelings, is the method *par excellence* for opening to the young child the way to the learning of English. At the beginning nothing is to be uttered for the sake of the form, but only for the sense. When the right word is not at hand, the teacher quietly suggests it or the child uses some of his other modes of utterance.

Let us ever remember that words are not instinctive to the child, like gestures and tones of voice, and that the words are to be improved only so rapidly as it can be done without obstructing the interested flow of the child's thought and feeling. Imitation and memory are strong, and these are the teacher's grounds for hope that the worst faults of the home training may disappear in time. When the atmosphere of the school room is redolent with good feeling and the teacher has skill to attach the thing to be learned to some affection or desire, a single presentation is often sufficient to establish it.

Little by little, throughout the kindergarten and the first grade of school, the child acquires some freedom in conversation in fields where educative germs are numerous. Young children do not grow in knowledge by the acquisition of logically consecutive ideas. In many homes these germs are few. The child's knowledge grows in spots, for the most part. Logical sequence is not felt nor desired. Their first acquisitions are a mass of unrelated facts, especially is this true of their school knowledge. In the home the, at first, isolated facts have widened their respective horizons until they have touched each other and some relation has become established. The primary grades can do much to encourage the mind to seek to connect its ideas, by judiciously emphasizing those which most readily fall into a connected whole. The teacher must work with the conviction that in the sub-consciousness of the child are the germs of all the emotional, moral, and intellectual activities

that are to be realized in the man. She must not underestimate his ability to appreciate what he has no language to express. There is often a response from the eye while the tongue remains silent.

#### IMITATION AND MEMORY

Imitation and memory do not need to be strengthened. They are already seizing upon everything to which the interest and affections attach themselves. To select the most fitting matter and work up its presentation to a climax, is the teacher's problem in promoting the acquisition of new ideas.

We have said that imitation is the main reliance. Imitation may have a much wider range than mere mechanical repetition. When we are listening to a story or a song, we are imitating as we follow the presentation of another. In this sense much of human life is imitation. How to make the imitative instinct grow into an initiative activity is the ever present problem for the teacher in every grade. How to make the memory join its mass of facts into a causal sequence, is the ever recurring problem in the cultivation of the intellect.

The evolution of these powers of personal initiative and causal sequence is slow. The art of the teacher is shown by supplying the environment and the exercise that will awaken the germ, and then by waiting for results. There must be no forcing the growth; but we can continue to enrich the soil by much reading and story telling and conversation.

The personal initiative in thinking is most easily aroused by conversations upon stories or other topics in which the children have a lively interest. The personal initiative stimulated by the manual constructions now prevalent in most good primary schools is of another sort, but every kind of personal initiative is helpful to every other kind. Anything that calls for results to be worked out in the child's own way is an exercise in original and self-directed power.

But let it be remembered that all the powers of the child are at bottom one power; all the energies active in the universe are in their essence one energy. This is the characteristic of spirit



as distinguished from a machine. Bearing these things always in mind, we shall avoid any attempt to educate the child in sections. There are no strictly departmental processes of the soul.

#### IMAGINATION

A free working of the imagination is only possible when there is a feeling of absolute freedom from any unpleasant restraint from without.

This feeling will be in the atmosphere of every school where love reigns. But let us not confuse love with sentimentality, nor freedom with mere animal impulse. Children are to be *trained* to freedom. The instinct to follow impulse is the germ from which must grow the child's impulse to follow reason. The problem is How to avoid the arrest of the sense of liberty in seeking to stimulate the growth of rational freedom. The wild imagination of the child is the inherited germ with which we must begin. How can it be tamed without arresting its growth? It must be done by the silent influences of atmosphere, and soil—the spirit of the school and the material and method employed. If the teacher's eye is riveted upon a course of study separated into weekly or monthly sections, there is absolutely no hope of success. Nor is there any greater hope of success when the teacher seeks to follow the impulsive wanderings of the child.

Too much repression is one cause of the arrest of wholesome growth, and too much license is an equally potent cause. We need to realize at every step in the process of teaching English that young children are poets. They are for the time the things they personate. A little experience in the world of reality forms the basis of a large experience in their world of unreality, their "sposin" world. But this "sposin" world is very close to the loving heart of the universe. It is the realm of that creative activity which finds its fullest utterance only in speech. The supreme joy of creating is felt by the child. His products are crude and irrational when judged by later standards, but to the young child the few combinations of

straight and curved lines in which he embodies these creations are paragons of beauty, and his language is to him exquisite poetry.

The free conversation-method including story-telling, relation of incidents, etc., is the best device of the teacher, who can use it, for avoiding the dangers of this Scylla of license and Charybdis of repression.

Before the child can successfully enter upon English expression through the long circuit of the fingers, he needs to have acquired great facility in the use of the short circuit, through the tongue. In the meantime while working for this facility he can learn the mechanics of the long circuit.

#### THE MECHANICS

It is not required of this brief outline, which undertakes to show merely the guiding ideas in a scientific procedure in teaching English, to devote much space to the discussion of methods of mastering the mechanics or to methods of procedure in any phase of the work. The changes in the psychical activity of the child from oral to graphic speech is the matter of chief moment. When these are clearly apprehended, the teacher is the best judge of the procedure for the particular school or pupil.

Graphic English is very modern compared with oral speech. It involves a discrimination which primitive man for many ages did not make—the distinction between form and meaning. To this reference has been made above.

Instruction in English should result in the habit, in the high school at least, of seeing the meaning as clearly in the graphic symbol as in the sound symbol. In other words, the learner should be able to interpret the printed page as easily as he can follow the same discourse in oral speech. This may dispense with the service of many of our orators, perhaps, but it will conduce to clearness and stability of thought when men can understand as well what they read as what they hear. The weakness of America today is the inability and, therefore,

the disinclination of the mass of the people to read a serious and logical exposition of any subject. The newspaper is their high water mark in English in respect to both form and substance. The average graduate from the high school and from the college must learn to read after he leaves school.

No doubt there is more than the difference between oral and graphic forms involved in this, but the continued inability to see ideas in graphic forms is the seed of the difficulty. So long as the reader must translate them into oral speech, he has not mastered the art of reading. Oral speech is the language of concrete images. Abstract ideas come in best from the graphic symbol addressed to the eye. We care not for the pronunciation of the word in reading abstract discourse, but chiefly for its visual form.

#### STORY TELLING

Story telling and story reproduction are the strong reliance of the primary school for training in English. Until recently, story telling has been no part of the primary curriculum. It is now fast becoming the "head-stone of the corner" in our estimate of its importance, but in our practice it lags far behind. This is because the teachers are not good story tellers. It is an art having its definite principles and rules, like others, and requiring much practice under judicious criticism. Our normal schools have not embodied it in their course of training, and have few expert story tellers in their faculties. They have been busy trying to make an adjustment of the matter and method of the established curriculum to the psychical attainments of the children, in so far as they have done anything strictly professional.

The schools must increase their estimate of the importance of training in the use of English in the first six grades. In the first three grades it is practically the sole vocation of the school. Other than manual training, arithmetic is the only subject in the curriculum demanding separate and serious attention. The importance of arithmetic in these first grades

has been greatly overestimated. In them it is solely of the applied variety. This does not exclude the learning of arithmetical tables in the third year—which is a mere memory process. Such tools of knowledge should be mastered while the mechanical memory is strongest.

In the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades the school should advance by slow approaches from the study of the mechanism of the word to that of the sentence. The mechanism of the sentence must be seen, from the start, to be determined by the meaning. This applies not only to the arrangement of words into sentences, but to the inflection of words as well. Difference of meaning requires difference in form or in arrangement of words. As the child's ability to form judgments grows, he is able to understand the mechanism by which these judgments are expressed. But all this preliminary study in these grades of the forms and uses of words in expressing meaning should be oral—study with the teacher. Textbook study and reproduction are too apt to degenerate into rote-memory processes when these lower grades study English from textbooks. Besides, the young student needs to deal with live thoughts active in his own mind, instead of with dead results of another's thinking.

#### COMPOSITION

Composition, oral and written, must grow as the child's ability to think consecutively grows. The constructing of single sentences to express separate judgments is not composition in the sense in which we use the word in school. It is called, rather, sentence making, and is an important acquisition for facility in composition.

The composition process is one in which personal initiative is the prime requisite. The impulse must be felt as the moving cause of the expression. Unless the pupil composes English oral or written under this impulse it is in no sense creative study. It may be study of the mechanism of the sentence, but it is a very mechanical study of that. If English has been studied, as above suggested, in the grades below, and a similar

process is continued in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades, the child will have enough ideas pressing for utterance, upon any fitting subject, to furnish the matter for his exercise in composition writing or oral discourse.

Let it always be borne in mind that everything studied in school is a live thing. It is not dead stuff, nor dead results, but a live process in the child's world and should be so regarded. Indeed everything in the world is a process and a process only; so the philosophers and scientists tell us. No other conception is possible if spirit is the creator of the world. There are mechanical processes, but he whose spiritual growth is arrested in these can be nothing more than a machine; and this is the lowest manifestation or utterance of the human spirit. Mechanism is one of the lowest rounds of the ladder by which we rise "From the lowly earth to the vaulted skies." But it is a round of the ladder.

#### IV

##### ENGLISH IN THE HIGHER GRAMMAR GRADES

The sentence is the object of study in the second distinct period of English study. This subject also has its sub-conscious and its conscious periods. In the lower grades, the division of the sentence into subject and predicate, the functions of the different parts of speech and of phrases and clauses, the modifications of the meanings of words by inflection, capitals, punctuation, and paragraphing, can all be taught in an incidental way, while the major emphasis is placed upon the meaning. The study of the separate functions of the words is often helpful in mastering the thought expressed. But this is hardly what is meant by the study of English grammar. It is merely building an approach to it. In Latin or German in which inflection determines the relations of words, the knowledge of these is the main purpose of grammar study. But English is almost a grammarless tongue, from this point of view. Its grammar is studied for another and different reason

and should not be attempted earlier than the seventh grade in the best schools.

#### THE SENTENCE

The sentence is found in every developed language. It has the same essential characteristics in all. It is the verbal expression of a judgment, or thought.

Every judgment involves a *source*, a *separation*, and a *return*. The source is the *subject*; from this the *object* or predicate is separated; and then it *returns* to, or is identified with, the subject. In the conscious act of thinking *I*, the subject, project my *predicate*, the *object*, and then affirm it to be my own by means of the *copula*, as: *I-am-thinking of this matter*. This is the type of all thought. It is by this process that each one creates for himself what he knows. Indeed, is it not by this process that the Absolute Ego has created the Universe, so far as man can fathom that process? The Absolute Source projects nature and man as object which returns to the primal source through man's spiritual identification of himself with the Father by feeling, thinking, and willing what He thinks, feels, and wills—becoming perfect as he is perfect.

This trinity in the judgment reproduces itself in all of the intellectual creations of man. Every ideal of art, or of literature, or of government has *source*, *alienation* and *return* as the constituent elements of its movement, when we study it deeply enough to discover them.

Since the judgment is the unit of human thought, all human knowledge *must* partake of the nature of the judgment. We can conceive of absolute thought only as the human judgment writ large. Man cannot escape this formula in his intellectual processes nor in his products. Whatever he knows he must thus create. His ultimate goal seems to be to identify his thought and life with that of the Absolute.

This has its place in this discussion for the reason that every serious-minded man's view of the world determines in a large way every purposeful act of his conscious life. The serious-

minded teacher of English has great need of a deep and rational view of man in his relations to the world, for "as the teacher thinketh, so is he, and so is his influence upon the school." This may be and for the most part ought to be a silent influence. Its effectiveness is manifested in the view of life the child has unconsciously acquired.

The process by which judgments are made has been shown above. The sentence is the judgment formed in words. The growth of the sentence in the evolution of the race has kept pace with the growth of the judgment. Clear judgments call for clear statements. The signs of meanings become as complex as the meanings themselves.

The essential parts of a complete sentence are three, corresponding to the three-fold movement in the formation of the judgment, viz.: the subject, the predicate, and the copula. Every judgment has its source in the thinker. "I think," or "see," or "hear," or "believe," etc., is the fundamental proposition of every judgment I form. To express modifications of the returning predicate, calls for words in the sentence used as nouns or pronouns, pure and attributive verbs, adjectives, adverbs, conjunctions, and prepositions. There are six classes of ideas used in the construction of judgments, and they have their corresponding parts of speech in the sentence. More complex thoughts call for phrases and clauses to express some of the more complex ideas or modifications of ideas which cannot be expressed by single words. The study of the relations of the ideas in the judgment, and of the mutual relations and forms of the words necessary to express them is Grammar in the sense in which the subject is here discussed.

The pupil has already learned many of the functions of words, in his efforts to interpret what he reads and in his practice in expressing his own thoughts with clearness and precision. But he is now making a systematic study of the sentence that he may discover the reasons for the rules, as well as the rules themselves, that must be observed in the use of the English

tongue. Prof. Earle says, "The chief instrument of Grammar and the key to grammatical analysis is the doctrine of the Parts of Speech." A doctrine so important ought to receive more than a passing notice even in so brief an outline as this is required to be.

The doctrine of the parts of speech is based upon the function of ideas in forming a judgment. Those ideas of which some attribute may be affirmed, are expressed by a class of words called *nouns* or *pronouns*. Attributes of these objects are expressed by *adjectives*; attributes of these attributes by *adverbs*. Ideas that *assert* attributes of objects, the return activity, are expressed by *verbs*. The mutual connection of ideas with other ideas is shown by the *preposition*, and that of judgments with judgments by the *conjunction*. Upon these evident meanings and their relations in the judgment, all the grammatical relations of words in the sentence are based. Groups of words—phrases and clauses—perform the office of some of these parts of speech. Often a single word has two or more uses in the sentence, and, too, words originally limited to one use often perform other functions in the sentence. With the growth of the language, many abbreviations and idiomatic phrases have arisen in expressing judgments, but no judgment ever contains other than the six distinct classes of ideas numerated above. The recognition of this fact and knowledge of the history of the philological changes that have grown up will greatly simplify many of the grammatical problems that arise in the study of sentence construction.

Of the practical value of this analytic study of sentences as an aid to accurate and rapid interpretation of the thought on the printed page, and also to correct speaking and writing by the student, something will be said later. It seems fitting to speak here of the educative value of this study in another of its aspects.

All the other activities of the elementary school direct the thought of the learner outward. The things the child studies



are objective—other than himself. He looks upon them as upon a panorama.

This is as it should be. To know one's self is the ultimate goal of man's endeavor, but his first steps toward its attainment are through an intimate acquaintance with the external world. There is a subjective world, however, of infinitely greater importance to him. To enter it too early in life is as disastrous as it is never to enter it. Only a small per cent of those who enter the elementary schools go beyond these. I do not see how grammar can be anything more than a memoriter exercise if the learner does not study the workings of his own mind in learning it. If he takes up a systematic study of technical grammar in the eighth year after the incidental analysis of the sentence necessary to satisfactory work in English in the grades below, an opportunity is afforded to introduce him to a study of the workings of his own mind, which is, at the same time, an introduction to the study of psychology, logic, ethics, and philosophy. It is impossible for one to arrive, in after life, at a rational and restful view of life except by a study of the subjective world which he enters or may enter through the door of grammar. It will give him the key to the solution of many problems that become matters of great concern later, should he care to solve them for himself. He must solve them for himself if they are solved.

The importance of the study of the sentence in the various forms of discourse, in order that one may accurately interpret its meaning and so be enabled to put his own meaning into the best form, is too evident to need elucidation.

That one can learn to speak and write good English by imitation, when his life is spent in an environment in which only such language is used, is evident, but no one ever becomes a master of his mother tongue by such a process. The rule of thumb is his only guide.

Much needs to be done to improve the pedagogical procedure which now prevails in teaching the grammar of our mother tongue.

Young people generally begin this study before they have gained facility in reading for the sense, or in the ready and accurate use of language in conversation, or in the easy expression of their thought in written composition. English is the study of major importance during the first six years of school life. During this period the child should not only acquire reasonable skill in the use of the sentence, in both the graphic and oral forms, but through his readings and conversations with his teachers, ideals of life and aspiration to achieve something worth while should become awakened and, as far as may be, established. This is a strong defense for a great deal of well selected and properly graded reading-matter in these grades. It should be borne in mind that good English is the utterance of the lives of the best people at their best moments, and that the school must, for the time, live their lives over after them.

Closely related to this ethical function of English study is the music, the manual training, and the graphic arts—what the uninformed call the fads of the elementary school. All the subjects of study become mere fads when we fail to articulate them closely and wisely with the inner and outer life of the learner. It is because of this lack of adequate articulation that the children often feel so little abiding interest in the work of the school.

The elementary study of these higher processes of life, which the schools of the former generation ignored, is one of the most valuable contributions made by modern education to the school life of the children. When the teachers have learned how to use them, their value will become manifest to all whose opinion counts.

We will now assume that elementary study of English, as an activity in the lives of the children, has been pursued for six or seven years, and that the functions of words in expressing judgments have been an incidental study to the extent that the knowledge could be employed in helping the child to master the printed page.

The transition from the elementary study to that of gram-

mar is more marked than is any other change in the entire course of English instruction. The movement to this point has been distinctively synthetic. The child has been advancing toward the construction of larger wholes from step to step, gathering ideas and creating ideals which called for more complicated symbols for their expression. He is now to enter upon an analytic study of judgments and their symbols.

This transition is difficult for the child to make because it calls for introspection, a radically different act from observation. All his life he has known his objects of thought as objective, whether they were objects of sense or of the imagination. Now he must analyze this act of knowing. One can conceive of a course of instruction in the elementary stage so artistically planned and executed that children in the sixth or seventh grade would be able to enter upon this introspective study understandingly. Whether profitably or not, I do not know, for I do not remember my own state of mind at that age. I have seen one class in the sixth grade that seemed quite as able as any eighth grade I ever knew to pursue this study. The class had had the best of instruction from the beginning of their school experience and the grammar teacher was an artist.

It is safe to affirm that children in general are set to work on grammar before the grammar-sense has sufficiently developed. But one seems justified in saying, also, that it is not so often the child's inability to understand as it is the teacher's failure to see what he needs to understand, that makes grammar so forbidding a subject of study. A prevalent pedagogical error in the beginning of this analytic study of English is to proceed at once with the study of the statements in the book. Textbooks in grammar in the hands of capable teachers are generally more valuable for the illustrative exercises they contain, than for the author's elaboration of his doctrine.

In the first stages of this introspective study the conversational method seems altogether the best way to open up the

subject. The pupil will not be able to study the movements of his own mind by fixing his attention upon the products of some other mind. He must be led to see himself making judgments and to discover the steps in the process. This requires a series of lessons continued long enough to discover not only the general process of separation and return—the completed judgment—but the function of the different classes of ideas in constructing the object (predicate) which is to be identified in some way with the ego that is the source of the entire movement. When this movement of the self in forming the judgment is recognized, the construction of the sentence symbol that is its verbal expression is an easy matter, and the functions of the separate words, inflections, phrases, and clauses in the sentence are no more difficult. Time taken to lay the foundation is time saved in building the grammatical structure.

Another pedagogical error of this stage of English teaching is the conviction which prevails generally that an exhaustive analysis of every sentence studied should be made from the start. It is better to articulate the large bones before giving much attention to the small ones. When the learner can see at a glance what words are needed to express the subject of that which he is studying, and can point out those that set forth its predicate, the mutual relations of words and ideas in subject and in predicate are not far to seek. But all these things will be clear only when the judgment expressed is clear.

When the subject is thus opened, a good textbook in the hands of the pupils for the study of such details and such illustrative sentences as the teacher may direct, is the only valuable use of such a book. The learners are now studying the thing itself—the sentence—and are not trying to learn what some one else has said about it, whose sayings they do not understand.

This seems to the writer a truly scientific method of studying the English sentence.

The practice of devoting two or three years to the study of English grammar is another prevalent pedagogical error. Such a study of the sentence, as has been suggested, for a single year, either in the eighth grade or in the first year of the high school, will give better results. The power to analyze the sentence at a glance is easily acquired when the learner's mind is prepared for the study; and the laws of punctuation, spelling, inflection, and syntactical construction, not already acquired in the grades below and which are needful for practical use and future study, can be acquired in the short period suggested, provided the pupil is interested in acquiring them. It is not easy, if it is not impossible, to teach a child anything he does not care to learn.

During this period of sentence study, the work done in the reading of literature should be, in part, a rapid thought analysis of the matter read with a view of noting the mutual relations of the ideas expressed. The purpose of this is to give facility in mastering the thought of the writer as one reads. This is easy enough in short, concise statements, but not so easy in long, complicated sentences. Many people in these days cannot read Macaulay and some other great writers of a former generation, because they get lost on the journey from the beginning of one of their sentences to the end of it.

This study of the sentence is introductory to that analytic study of discourse which is pursued in the English of the high school.

#### READING

The boy and girl period of growth, as distinguished from the previous period of infancy on the one hand—extending to about the tenth year—and the beginning of the adolescent period on the other, includes what, until recently, were known as intermediate and grammar grades. The marked characteristics of this period in the child's evolution have been already noted, and in some measure accounted for by the theory of evolution as the creative process of nature and of man. What

should be the general purpose of the training in these grades has, also, been tentatively suggested.

This period is the most inspiring one to the teacher who appreciates the attitude of the child toward life, and who sees the possibilities of directing these superabundant energies in the formation of ideals of manly character, and in the awakening of aspirations to achieve them. There is not less but more impulse to attain at this stage than at any former period. There is an evolution of strong desires, for a different sort of attainment. They seek to utter themselves in physical achievements. Their commanding ambition is power. This is the bottom reason for manual training and athletic sports. Athletic contests which are carried on in the spirit of justice and with a knightly regard for what is honorable, are a means of grace to the young. The wrong in our college athletics today lies at the door of the faculties of these colleges and universities. They do not sufficiently insist that those who disregard justice and are careless of their honor shall take no part in them. They may be rough sport, and occasionally a bone may be broken, but that is of little moment if they teach the boys restraint under strong provocation, and to hold to a high standard of square dealing.

This is a period when the English must help, and it can help mightily. Indeed all along the primary course the ideal school has been preparing the spirit of the child for this transition. It has there emphasized not only the amenities of life, and used the Sermon on the Mount as its guiding principle in selecting the stories and the readings and conversations, but it has not forgotten the sterner demands of justice which return his deed upon the doer to his own undoing at times. Some mourn that such retributive stories as Little Red Ridinghood, or Jack the Giant Killer and the like, shall be used in infant schools. The children delight in them because "it served him right." They see it, in their infantile way, as a square deal. The Great Spirit of the universe has so ordered things that in the process of evolution the deed returns upon the doer,

either from without or from within. Let the little child know something of this under the educative direction and in the atmosphere of love of a wise teacher.

I have no theory of procedure to suggest for teachers who have neither wisdom nor love. I cannot see how such can perform any service worth while in the school-room, either for the children or for mankind. Their opportunity for service will be found in some other field.

The reading done in this period should be adapted to the dominant interest of the children. The field includes history and literature. Concerning the character of the matter and the method of its presentation, I shall venture a few suggestions.

An *exhaustive* study of the aims and deeds of a people, whether our own or any other, would be unprofitable if not impossible by children below the high school. A *thorough* study of an outline in which the epoch making events are associated with the lives of great men of commanding influence in shaping these events, it is possible and profitable to make.

But whether it shall be made or not will depend upon the method pursued by the teacher, and upon his own mastery of the history and of the outline he follows. He is not to leave the children to dig it out for themselves. The history of any event or series of events is to grow in the minds of the scholars under the lead of the teacher where they all work together. As the history grows, material is accumulated which can be used to stimulate the prophetic instinct to conjecture what must follow. The teacher's ability to paint the panorama will be increased by the fullness of his own knowledge, and his skill in selecting the colors. By this method of oral and textbook study in class, the teacher learns the mental attitude of each child toward the matter in hand, and can better select the things for his study preparatory to the next lesson hour. In this way a bird's-eye view of the history of England from the invasion of Caesar can be gained in a single semester, and something of the stirring speeches of the great statesman can be committed

to memory and recited in appropriate places in the course of the study. Sections of this study would serve as subjects for practice in narrative composition and in this way the history and the English study are inseparably united. Another semester spent upon American colonial history in a similar way with constant reference to the concurrent events in England, binds the two into a connected whole, and leads the children to live over again the thousand years of their ancestors and to feel the price that has been paid for our opportunities.

This is the time for beginning the cultivation of the patriotic emotions. Love of country is an ever present motive with every people. The children are most readily inspired by the patriotic deeds of their own ancestors in the forum and upon the field of battle. The skillful teacher can lead them to live over these deeds with these ancestors in imagination, becoming not only an eye-witness, but a participant in the events that stirred the souls of the great. At these supreme moments the children should recite from the speeches delivered in the forum or reproduce vivid descriptions of scenes upon the battlefield, such as Morley's of the battle of Naseby.

Turn the impulse of the boys to do real deeds of physical prowess into doing imaginary deeds of heroism with the heroes of the world, inspired by their motives.

Matter for developing the literary taste and for advancing the child's ideals of life, must be chosen with reference to the stage of soul growth of the child. Unfortunately for the highest success, the children in the same class have not all attained the same rank in psychic power. What is said here has reference to classes in the seventh and eighth years as the writer knows them.

If we call all worthy discourse literature, we find it necessary to distinguish between the literature of knowledge and the literature of power. There is no easily defined line of cleavage between them, but in one the commanding emphasis is given to knowledge—information—and in the other, to its power to move the soul to aspire. Literature for entertainment



merely, may perform its function admirably and has its value, but that value is small when viewed in the light of eternity. But it is not to be discarded.

It seems to me that an adequate view of the teaching of English must see that it is for the upbuilding of character, and that character is one's *ideals* and *aspiration* for the good and beautiful; it is his *knowledge* of what is true in the world of nature and of man, and his *will* to do that which is worth while.

How to make the best use of the literature of power in the elementary schools has been the theme of many writers. My purpose is not to repeat what has been so well said, but merely to call attention to the fact that some of this literature is especially adapted to the interests and needs of the scholars of these two or three higher grammar grades. This is especially true of Scott's *The Lay of the Last Minstrel*, *Marmion*, *The Lady of the Lake*, *Rokeby*, *Ivanhoe*, and *The Talisman*, which can be made especially attractive to boys; and it seems to me that the boys of these grades will continue to be the object of chief concern to the teacher for generations to come. Many who have the greatest native strength leave the schools for active life from these grades.

Their ideals of life are not high and the impulse to get on in the business struggle is a reproduction of the struggle of man in his savage state to survive. Their impulse is to get on by a similar process:—by cunning and by power. The present sorrowful state of honor and integrity among those of high rank in the business world, and the worse than robber greed with which they have betrayed every trust, are a re-enactment of the robber stage of the evolution of the race; more despicable than that, in so far as these modern captains of finance and industry are more intelligent than were our savage forbears. This dismal failure of their lives would not have come but for failure in their education to establish ideals and aspiration for a worthier life than is the gratification of the thirst for power which ill-gotten gains can give. Certainly

English can be so taught in this period of boyhood that chivalry and knightly honor will become more attractive than sordid greed; Brutus a higher type of manhood than Shylock. I may not be pardoned for expressing the conviction that the boy at this age should be taught English by a manly man who can put himself in the boy's place. Indeed all the subjects which boys learn in school, which make most for manly character,—among which English stands in the forefront—should be taught by capable men. The school must have a virile atmosphere if it shall produce a manly product. Emerson said that he cared not so much what his boy studied as who was his teacher.

Power is our main reliance in teaching, but skill in the use of this power is only second in importance. One must know how the child learns if he would have skill in teaching him.

The child has the art instinct, but he is not at home in the art world. His art instinct has been strengthened in his English course below the sixth grade. It needs special culture during this period of boyhood. Art enters the soul as feeling. The greater the knowledge and culture, the better able is one to appreciate the beautiful, but art is felt rather than thought.

How can the artistic feeling be aroused in studying literature?

Certainly not by setting the novice to the task of digging it from the printed page without assistance.

Not until the learner is familiar with the author's style and can read at sight the meaning in the words, is he free to catch the spirit or feel the emotion of the author from the printed page alone.

Whether the author be Longfellow, or Arnold, or Tennyson, or Lowell, or Scott, it seems to me that the teacher must first give the student an introduction that shall awaken his dormant appreciation of what the reading portrays.

This requires that the teacher be a good reader; one whose voice, enunciation, countenance, gesture, shall fitly express the sentiment.

Suppose that the study be *Marmion* or *The Lady of the Lake*. Much of the first reading of the poem will be done by the teacher in class, after giving it its proper setting in the history and spirit of the time it portrays. This is done, of course, with explanations and conversations upon such points as may need to be cleared up, and with the class following the reading of the teacher in their texts. After reading the first canto in this way, the class could spend a period or two in reproducing the scenes in their own language, and in reading some of the most striking passages, whether of description or narration—in both of which Scott is a master. Portions of each canto can be assigned for home reading at the teacher's discretion and reviewed in class, preparatory to the next readings.

When the entire poem has been surveyed in this way, a basis is established for its more exhaustive study, provided the class is able to pursue this further study with profit.

But, whatever the grade, whether primary, grammar, or high-school, this general survey of the literary whole with the teacher in class should be first made.

I have found it to be the rule—to which there are exceptions—in schools including the high schools, that the class nearing the close of their study of Julius Caesar, for example, have not yet read the play through in class, and many of the scholars had not had sufficient interest to do it in their home reading. They look upon it as a grind during the class period.

To what extent the more exhaustive study of a literary selection shall be made will depend upon the ability of the class. Below the high school it should not extend very far. The chief purpose—but a silent one—in the grades is to establish ideals and aspirations for worthy attainment by encouraging a feeling of hero worship of a high order. This is certainly worth while when we consider that it is the strong, assertive, power-loving boys of our schools who are to become the leaders in society, in finance, in industries, in politics, and the like, and that they are to set up the standards and set the pace in such pursuits. The boys should leave the schools with

a strong detestation of lying and stealing under any name, and with a sense of honor and love of country, which forbids them to use their power to the injury of their fellow men. Nothing can do more to secure this result than the adequate teaching of English in the schools: English with the large meaning that is emphasized in these pages.

In closing these suggestions on one phase of the subject for discussion, it may be well to remind the Society that this paper is submitted not as a hand-book for teachers, nor as a finished and carefully articulated outline of such a book, but rather as a series of suggestions upon different phases of the work in English. It is hoped that the discussion will contribute so much to the solution of this important problem that a publication, more complete, for the furtherance of the ends suggested will be justified. (This much by way of explanation for evident and intentional omissions of important matter. The author would add that this entire study has been written at irregular intervals in a busy life, without as much attention to the mutual relations of parts as a more formal discourse would demand.)

## ENGLISH IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

### V

#### INTRODUCTORY SUGGESTIONS

There seem to be four quite distinct stages, or periods of transition, in the development of human life:—infancy, boyhood, adolescence, and manhood. In infancy there is no marked difference in the psychic growth of the two sexes. In the period of boyhood, the boy's instincts, impulses, and interests differ materially from those of girls, as has been already suggested. The transitions from girlhood to womanhood is much more rapid, and the changes in the views of life are much more marked than are the corresponding changes in boys.

The psychic difference between the typical boy and the man

is of slower growth than is the difference between the typical girl and the woman. The greater rapidity and violence of this change in girls makes of it a storm and stress period of greater intensity for them than is experienced by boys. For both, it is a new birth, where again, as from infancy, the angels of darkness are warring against the angels of light. It has been called the period of conversion, of self-dedication to a cause, good or bad. Shall the governing instinct in the selection of the aim of life be worthy or less worthy? Shall it be power or virtue? Material prosperity or spiritual riches? A life of service or of domination?

It is during this period that dominant ideals of life become established. It is a time, too, when the soul awakes to a fuller and deeper sense of what is really worth while, though it sees it as "through a glass, darkly."

It is a time, therefore, for wary walking by the teacher, and especially by the teacher of English. Not all the other high school studies together give so many opportunities for determining the future character of the student as does the English.

It seems to me that the teacher should come to this work with all that is known of this critical period of adolescence. And this, too, demands wary walking if one would discover the truth in the literature now appearing and to appear more abundantly in the immediate future.

The spiritual significance of this period has been but recently apprehended. It is a later phase of the spiritual evolution of the race of which the Christian church has been dimly conscious since the coming in of Puritanism. It has been known in the church as the period of conversion, and is to all persons a transition period of varying degrees of intensity. Shall the soul's advance to higher things or be arrested by the allurements of pleasure or of sordid power? The emotions are the dominant factor in giving direction to this new life, as they were to the former life. Dr. Hall calls it the "Golden Age," and such it is in its possibilities.

The teacher must himself be a master of English if he would attain the greatest usefulness. Neither here nor elsewhere can one teach that which he does not know and cannot do. His proficiency will be the high-water mark of his efficiency. But without an inspiring and well articulated view of life and of the school's relation to it, his learning will be of little avail in securing results that are worth while. Though he have all knowledge, it profiteth the student nothing. To love, to know, and to do, complete the cycle of the soul's activity. What he loves, knows, and does, determines and constitutes his life. An unarticulated arc of this cycle is worth nothing without the other arcs of the life process. Knowledge without the loving deed, or the deed not directed by knowledge and love, or love without the intelligent act, is each by itself, without real value to the individual, and often works sore distress to others.

English, to the high school student, should result in psychic power in solving the problems of life, and, also, in practical ability to enter upon some of the literary vocations: the up-building of the self and service to the community. It does not work mightily for the accumulation of wealth and is apt to be little regarded because of its small commercial value. But, as has been urged in a preceding chapter, it behooves the high school especially, and the highest elementary grade in some degree, to open the way to the student to a knowledge of himself and to a method of self discipline that has no direct relation to money-getting, nor to any other eminence either political or social. I have lived among and mingled with the informed and the less informed classes of people in the middle states for nearly three score and ten years, and not ten per cent of them place a higher estimate upon education than its commercial value. What cannot make good by this standard they would expunge from the curriculum. This is the repeated demand of the public press and in these later years the educational forum seldom advocates an educational process because it is good for the soul.

The teaching of English has its commercial side, but so long as commercialism is the direct aim of all the other than the linguistic studies, the high school may well insist that the English shall make its commanding purpose the laying of the foundations for a higher type of character than the present leaders of the financial, industrial, political, and social groups represent.

A school boy was recently describing the methods of an ice-dealer. The wagon would be loaded with one thousand pounds of ice, and the driver who would sell eleven hundred pounds from this thousand would be rewarded. The boy gave this as an example of business thrift, not of reprehensible methods. He thought everybody did business that way. He admitted that it was not fair, but no business is; business is for making money, and what one man gains the other must lose.

In the same city, whose moral status is of the highest in the state, prizes were offered for the three best Christmas stories written by high-school students. The daily press offered the prizes and among the stories which the editor selected for publication, was one of a poor boy who wished to give his mother a Christmas present. According to the story, a merchant had published in his show-window a fifty-dollar prize for the best guess of the use of a piece of mechanism there displayed, the purpose of which was well concealed. The boy had surreptitiously discovered its use while in the hands of the maker. He sent in his guess and received the prize which he promptly gave to his poor mother. The judges did not consider his story one of the best four, for it had little literary merit. But neither judges nor publisher considered its moral obliquity as worthy of notice. The writer of the story was wholly unconscious of any such criticism upon his work. It was business. When such things are done in the green tree what will be done in the dry?

On the relation of college requirements to high-school English there is need of more reflection. All agree that the English study which best promotes the life of the student during the high-school period is the best preparation he can make for college. There is no uniformity in the attainment in English of those who enter the public high school in different parts of the country. Some of the high schools in large cities are exceptions to this statement.

The range of the English for culture, or soul growth, must be a wide one. There can be more uniformity, perhaps, in the study of the form aspects of the subject. Worthy literary selections can be made for the more exhaustive study by the class which are easily within the ability of every member. These should be fairly mastered as standards for estimating future work. But the major part of the reading should offer a wide range when we consider the whole class as the unit. The range of each student will be greater or less, depending upon his ability. Each should read literature in the field of his interests, and the teacher should help him to select good literature in these respective fields. The value of this reading will depend upon the fullness of the teacher's knowledge of it, upon his interest in the individual student, upon his skill in suggesting what to look for in each book, and upon the character of the tests applied to discover the contribution the reading has made to the life of the reader.

In the growth of the human soul there is from the beginning a consciousness of likeness and of difference—of synthesis and of analysis—of unity and of separation. The building-up process is the leading movement in the period of infancy and childhood. This is the period of the accumulation of ideas. The product is an aggregation rather than a system.

In boyhood the analytic instinct grows toward leadership, resulting in the separation of ideas into classes—the inductive period of growth and of the creation of general notions. In the high school, there is, or may be, a rapid approach toward rational synthesis in which the logical or causative relations



of things come to the front. In all the three periods all of these activities are involved but the stages may be fairly well distinguished as those of *aggregation*, *induction*, and *deduction*. In the inductive stage the instinct to synthesize into classes is strong.

These two instincts, synthesis and analysis, appear in literature as the spirit that affirms—creates, and the spirit that denies—destroys. In nature it is seen as generation and degeneration.

Mephistopheles defines himself in Goethe's *Faust* as "the spirit that denies."

It will be noted that the creative, synthesizing spirit is the commanding instinct of the soul, when the development is not arrested. The aspiration of the human soul is toward unity with the universal soul, but that aspiration is yet weak and the school has undertaken to strengthen it. It is this conviction that inspires the teacher with a zeal beyond most other public servants. He may not be conscious of the cause of his devotion. He calls it his demon, perhaps, but it seems to me to be inspiration.

In the work of the grades the children have made no conscious distinction between the literature of power and that of knowledge. I apprehend that the artist will not admit that the latter is literature. A friend prominent in the educational counsels of the nation, was deprecating, before an audience of superintendents, the practice of attempting to teach the infants literature; and when I asked what he meant by literature he promptly replied, "That which neither you nor I ever write." He had evidently adopted the artist's definition.

But when the little child is stirred in his emotional and moral nature to a corresponding degree and after the manner in which literature stirs the artist, by the stories told by the teacher or read from the printed page, I think one may call that "literature of power"—at least for educational purposes. It certainly has the content of such literature, and it is the content more than the form that does most for character.

The high school undertakes to make manifest to the student the importance of an artistic form to adequately express a literary content. The high school cannot make artists but it can make it clear to the students what they must know to become such. The high school ought to set its face hard against the pernicious doctrine that all art, including literature, has for its commanding purpose the gratification of the artistic feelings—"art for art's sake." Certainly the only real demand of public education is for artistic expression of a true and noble sentiment. The vulgar dance-girl of the French art is not educative however entrancing may be the coloring. No more are corresponding creations of the poet. Whatever is fitted for use in the schools is more valuable for its meaning than for its style of utterance.

The content of true art must be the content of spiritual life—love, moral will, and thought.

It has become an established conviction of the writer that the elementary and high schools ought to do more for the boys' English than they are doing. Beyond the age of ten or eleven years, the mixed schools are better adapted to the nature and needs of girls than of boys. Some one has said, in substance, that the boys are sent to girls' schools. Of the rapidly increasing difference between the impulses, desires, and ambitions of boys and of girls beyond the age of ten, something has already been said in this discussion. This difference is universally recognized by teachers and parents of experience, who are sensitive to such matters. It seems to point back to some former period in the boyhood of the race, when the men, like the savage Indian tribes of two generations ago, must needs train themselves for war, while the women discharged the duties of domestic life. It may be that this inheritance will die out in some future period in the growth of man. We even now have feminine boys and masculine girls; but the boys who will do the men's work in the world for generations to come are, in spirit, the masculine boys who give sentimental mothers great

anxiety because they are not like their gentle sisters. This difference in the psychic impulses, whatever may have been the original cause of it, calls for recognition from the schools. America is making a mistake in converting her grammar schools into girls' schools, and her high schools into female seminaries to which boys are admitted. Boys from the age of ten or eleven must have for their dominant influence manly men, if vulgar greed for money-power or for political domination shall not entirely supplant moral power in the estimation of the mass of mankind, and of Americans in particular. We are in that stage of our evolution when a few strong, dominating spirits set the pace for the mass who always follow.

These boys need a course of instruction, especially in English and in history, taught by men.

How to make a re-adjustment of the teaching force to meet this need is a matter of detail. But the need seems to me imperative that these boys shall pursue those studies that afford the best opportunities for establishing ideals of noble living and for awakening aspirations and moral will to achieve them—such as English and history—under the lead of a man able to command their respect and to arouse their enthusiasm. Women can teach mathematics and science and art to boys as well as equally capable men can do it. But women are not competent teachers of boys in all subjects, as men are not competent teachers of girls in all subjects. If we are to continue to have mixed schools provisions should be made for about an equal number of men and women teachers in the high schools and higher grammar grades, and some of the classes should consist of boys exclusively and some exclusively of girls.

It is not in the aim of this discussion to consider the method of procedure in teaching literature in the high school. This society is not interested in such matter further than its general bearing upon the purpose of English study. The adolescent period is one of intense but uncertain psychic activity. Much work can be done by the students, but the school relies upon different influences to secure it from those employed in the grades,

The boy can be driven by influences more external; the adolescent must be inspired. This is a time, it is said, of devotion to ideals and causes. The school must give steadiness to the enthusiasm and plant the standard of a worthy cause. What was pursued for ends more external by the boy must now be seen as an end in itself—truth for truth's sake; right because it is right; loving kindness without thought of reward. When this finds utterance in form most fitting, the beautiful has appeared.

It seems to me that the material used should not only be a rich contribution to the commanding aim of English study—the building of character—but it should be so selected that it will serve as a conscious introduction, under the guiding hand of the teacher, to the four fundamental forms of discourse.

To enter upon the investigation of what particular literature should be studied would carry us far afield from the aims of this discussion.

The study of English in the high school has for its commanding purpose:—

First—The building of character controlled by moral will.

Second—Leading the students to live over again to the extent of their ability *the feeling, the thought, and the purpose* of the best that has been said and done in the world.

Third—To so do this that the graduates will take pleasure in reading that which has permanent value, and will be able to learn to distinguish the counterfeit from the genuine.

Set them in the way of determining for themselves what are the great books in the world and why they are great. They will thus be prepared to enjoy in their hours of leisure the companionship of the great souls of earth when at their best. By these accumulations of years they lay up for themselves treasures that can be fully realized only in the green old age which will thus be assured and become an increasing joy. Old age is then the Terrestrial Paradise instead of the Inferno so often the experience of the aged.

To do this in any effective way the high school must begin where the grammar grades leave off. If what is essential to such a study has not been done in the elementary schools it must be done by the high school before it enters upon its own legitimate work. This seems a truism, but the English work in many a high school comes to naught by disregarding this injunction.

The evil effect of undertaking to do what the learners are not prepared to understand and appreciate is manifest in the total indifference of a large majority of young men and women graduates to any reading other than the poor sensational novels that crowd our public libraries. The writer has offered publicly and repeatedly to publish reports made to high school principals of the home readings of recent high school graduates of one and two years' standing, as a test of the influence of their English study upon their desire to read and their selection of books. He has been answered invariably by silence and a reproving countenance. The public libraries report novels galore of the weaker sort as the reading of these young people.

A marked change from the material used in the lower schools should grow in the high school *pari passu* with the rapidly changing spiritual nature of the students. The selection of this material must be determined not by its excellence as literature solely, nor because of its value in the study of the historic development of literature, nor on any grounds other than that it will best meet the present needs of the students. Those needs the teacher must be able to discover. The experience of others will help him in his search, but there are no hard and fast boundary lines for all schools and all teachers. What we are seeking is growth in character, and character—the character we are seeking to promote—is a complex of psychic activities in which there is love for what is “noble and of good report,” knowledge to direct in its pursuit, and will to persist in its attainment.

Principal Percival Chubb in his admirable book, *The Teach-*

*ing of English*, says of the high school in its relation to the higher institutions:

"The high school course in English must be framed to incidentally dovetail into the higher institutions of learning. Incidentally we say, because these institutions have no peculiar demands to make upon the high school, other than those which these schools should make on themselves,—namely, that the work they undertake to do shall be well done."

May I suggest that these are quite different grounds for our selection than are the entrance requirements of colleges and universities. These requirements are valuable for their suggestions, especially to the experienced teacher, but they should never be directive. How a principal of a high school can continue to follow blindly any directions of this sort which he knows are not applicable to his school, and yet sleep well of nights, is to me a mystery; any principal, I mean, who has not bowed the knee to the spirit of commercialism that is now rampant in society. Education must be viewed in the "light of eternity," not in the light of frenzied finance—that temporary craze of our unstable social order. If the commercial spirit shall stalk on at its present pace for more than the lifetime of the other fads, education itself will become a fad, and no need will then remain for serious consideration of its purpose and method. These will change with the seasons.

#### COMPOSITION.

*In the Lower Grades.*—Little has been said in these remarks, except incidentally, of Composition, the matter of greatest moment in teaching English. The psychic growth of the child is a compound of movements from without inward, and from within outward—from object to subject, and from subject to object. The one builds up knowledge and the other creates power. The ever recurring questions are, What knowledge is of most worth? and, To what ends shall power be directed? The answers which the teacher makes, either consciously or unconsciously in his teaching, must depend upon his view of the

world. Is he viewing his work in the light of eternity, or is he following the injunction, unconsciously it may be, "Let us eat, drink, and be merry, for tomorrow we die?"

But for whatever ultimate end English is taught, the successful teacher for that end must recognize that building up knowledge without creating the power to use it is of little worth. From the start, therefore, impression and expression are the twin activities in the process of growth. Expression has been too little regarded in the past. The new movement in teaching English has been stimulated by the new movement in human thought, and by the more rational view of the soul.

Composition is the expression-side of the learning of English. It is both oral and written—expression by the tongue, and by the longer circuit through the fingers. It is, or should be the expression of the self. The child's out-of-school life is at every point self-expression. The teacher is discovering that this is probably the reason why out-of-school life is often so much more interesting to the child.

The teacher, from the primary grade through the university, must be ever working for knowledge *and* power. Knowledge does not become power except through half-a-life-time of discipline. The old adage that "knowledge is power" was first formulated by a master. It is not true of the child. It requires constant watchfulness to keep these twin activities working in harmonious co-operation in the growing mind.

But composition is more than expression, it is the *ordered* expression of English. It begins with the construction of the single sentence, which is not composition in the school meaning of the word, and advances by uniting two or more sentences to express a larger whole. The union of two sentences for this purpose is the simplest form or discourse.

This expression of the self is so important an element in English training because of the demands it makes on the personal initiative of the learner. Exercises in English are composition, in the strict sense of the word, only so far as they call into action this initiative. There is much done as compo-

sition that is *imitation* merely. There is little if any of the personal initiative in it that promotes growth in English. It may be useful in learning the mechanics, but drill in the mechanism must not be confounded with the teaching of English.

Imitation, Memory, and Imagination, the commanding trinity of the child's inherited psychic endowments, are supremely active, and form the line of least resistance for expressing himself in English. The teacher and the other environment which she supplies, must be his inspiration. Talking is the mechanism to be used. The teacher is the environment, beyond all other, the most important. Her voice, her face, her manner and fitting language, and more, her spirit and enthusiasm and skill in putting things are the main reliance of the children. Of the need of these acquirements mention has already been made. It is under the skillful leadership of the teacher in these grades that the child must learn to talk in an orderly way and to use the best words for his ideas.

This oral movement is the commanding one in the first five or six grades; but there must be, at the same time, a growing power and skill in speaking through the fingers. The need of giving the child freedom to utter himself without restraint during the English class-period is apparent, if he shall not sink into discouragement.

The success and want of success, in the schools of the cities, in securing for the pupils a free expression of themselves in written composition in the third and fourth years of school, was clearly shown at the late exposition in St. Louis. In some cities whose reputation for good schools is more than local, there was no evidence of personal initiative in the children's writings. What one member of the class said, all members said. In other cities, notably in Cleveland, there was evidence that the children each gave utterance to his own thinking on the matter before the class. The penmanship and the spelling were not so near a good standard as they were in the more uniform compositions of other cities, but the children showed more power. We have yet to learn that excellence in ex-



pression grows step by step with forceful and connected thinking, and that both of these are matters of slow growth; as slow as the growth of the child. A young child who cannot talk well, cannot write well. He cannot write so well as he can talk, unless his training in writing has been abnormal. With age one may come to utter himself best through his fingers and lose the power to do it well through his tongue, but children should not be so trained.

*In the Higher Grades.*—In the lower grades prominence is given to oral composition. The importance of training in oral composition as the scholars advance in the grades does not decrease but increases, rather, to the end of the high-school course.

The written composition is of increasing importance from the beginning of the seventh year. In the last two years of the elementary schools the boys and girls should be driven hard on the mechanics of composition writing. They will by this time have enough in their lives and enough coming in from day to day to write about. But they need sharp training on the best sentence formation to express the meaning; on the best selection of words to express different shades of meaning; and in giving a free wing to the imagination under guiding reins that are felt but are not oppressive nor depressing. This is preparatory to that freedom of expression under the established laws of good English which it is the especial function of the high school to encourage and promote.

The commanding function of English in the high school—to quote Principal Chubb in his truly great book, *The Teaching of English*, is “to make of a student, first of all, a character, and only secondarily an intelligence and an aptitude.” The multitude of avenues from which character building come into a serious and skillful procedure in teaching composition, will become manifest to him who has an open mind and a seeing eye. But it is only by the efficient performance of the second function that the first can be realized.

The scheme of the high school seeks to promote a friendly acquaintance, at least, with discourse in its four forms of narration, description, exposition, and argument. In most high schools this work is distributed over the four years of the course in this order. The method of this distribution is important.

There are few discourses of any considerable length that do not use all these forms. The school should recognize this fact. The models studied and compositions written should be such as put major emphasis on the form selected for the period during which it is to be practiced, in order that its peculiarities may prominently appear, but it is an error to limit the compositions to one form during that period. The same caution applies to the study of every other form of English—such as poetry and prose; dramatic, epic, or lyric composition; etc.

This appears self-evident perhaps and unworthy of remark in this presence, but the habit of chopping our subjects of study into distinct sections has become so confirmed as to destroy the unity of the movement in very many schools. The leading process in school life as in all life is synthesis; and analysis is only valuable to reduce vague, chaotic synthesis to a synthesis that is organic—unity in variety; many in one.

The need of continued oral composition in these forms is not sufficiently recognized. To become a good talker is in school only secondary to having something in mind which it is worth while to say and say well. This can be acquired only by practice in talking under friendly and helpful criticism. This calls especially for the extemporaneous debate so prevalent in good academies fifty years ago. It calls for a great deal more of oral extemporaneous discourse than high schools in general require.

The thing the high school needs in its English work above all things is sincerity. In the lower grades, the children need to practice it in every grade. In the high school, they have grown to a proper esteem for their own views and conclusion in all other subjects than English. That may be because Eng-

lish is not so well taught in the lower grades as are the other branches. But if the student in the high school does not feel free to give utterance to his convictions, and does not use that freedom concerning all matters that come before the class for discussion, the value of the English study for character is small. Entire sincerity on the part of the teacher and the class is the one thing needful to satisfactory results. This has been assumed in every line of this study as the *sine qua non* of success in every grade. We are such blunderers in teaching that our pupils are not telling us how it seems to themselves but are guessing what the teacher wishes to have them say. From the start they should be persuaded to state their own attitude toward the matter. It is then that the teacher has the proper data for leading the learner to correct his view. But in the high school this attitude of teacher and student toward the matter in hand is imperative.

#### CONCLUSION

This study has been made not as a criticism on the prevailing work in the elementary and high school, but rather to suggest how the teacher's view of the world will determine his procedure in every stage of instruction. If he views the universe as a machine run by power applied from without, mechanism will prevail in the school. The school then becomes an appliance for moulding pliable material into citizens, or financiers, or mechanics, or any other artisans, according to some pattern. It moulds men as we mould pottery, and it hardens them by drill. Every child then comes out of school a case of more or less arrested development. His personal initiative is at the lowest and conventionalism rules his life.

If the teacher sees the world to be a live and growing organism, moving on toward the realization of the highest attributes of soul but which is dependent upon the influence of environment for its progress and attainments, he pursues a very different course. He then realizes that greatness of soul is

greatness in ideals, and in moral will, and in knowledge—the attributes which the instinct of the soul declares are the universal soul. He must then work for growth in character first of all, with the abiding faith that if the child is wisely guided to this attainment, whatever else is needed will be added unto him. This is but saying that many of us need to change the emphasis in the training of children—not to leave the preparation for the mechanism of life undone, but to give the major emphasis to the upbuilding of the soul. The best study of English will help mightily to this end.

## GENERAL SUMMARY

## I

1. The writer suggests a view of the world as a foundation upon which to build a course of instruction in English. He does this not to impose any view upon the reader, but because there is need of our having some theory of the universe consistent with the growth of the race, by which to guide our course in fitting the young to pursue a rational and inspiring theory and practice of life.

2. This theory regards the universe as a process composed of an infinite number of inter-related processes—not as a mechanism constructed by some power external to itself. The process by which the universe, so far as known, is constructed is evolution. The working principle of evolution is that changes come as the need of these changes becomes imperative.

3. The supreme result of the evolutionary process on this planet is self-consciousness. This is conceived to be “the efflorescence of the human plant” to date, and not “a wart raised by the sting of sin,” nor “a fall or a process of purgation.”\*

Self-consciousness makes the creative activity of the soul possible, and is the condition of all knowledge. Man knows only that which his consciousness creates. The unit of this creative process is the judgment.

4. There is no dead thing in the universe. Everything is a phase or aspect of activity—appearing in Nature as Motion, and in Man as Consciousness.

5. The creative processes are cycles, corresponding to the cycle in self-consciousness called subject-object: The Absolute Cycle is (1) Ego, or source; (2) Nature, the object or predicate of the thought of the absolute; and (3) Man, the image of the absolute in that he is self-conscious and creative, and through his creative activity rises more and more into spiritual

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\*Hall's *Adolescence*. Vol. II, page 67.

identity with the Absolute Source, and so completes the cycle.

6. This view of the world makes Psychology enlarged to include the Universe the last system of thought for the race—the three systems in the evolution of man being: 1. Religion; 2. Philosophy; and 3. Psychology; which latter completes the cycle in the thought of the race, corresponding to the cycle in the judgment of the individual and to the cycle of the creation of the Universe.\*

7. It is by the inflow of the soul of the world into the soul of the child through avenues which it is possible for the school to open, that his life becomes in a small measure, *one in love, knowledge, and moral will* with the soul of the universe. The school, directed by man, has been substituted for nature's laws of evolution in directing the growth of the child.

8. Of the evolution of the child as revealed by genetic psychology, it is not necessary to speak in this summary further than to call attention (1) to the inheritances which the child enters upon at birth—Feeling, Memory, Imitation, and Imagination—which are the commanding activities to be used in training the child in his early school life; (2) to the period between infancy and adolescence—especially in boys—when the instinct of power and domination is a leading factor; and (3) to the adolescent period or the period of new birth—a marked transition in education the importance of which has been but recently appreciated.

9. The *view of the world* here suggested, regards feeling as the primary and commanding stream in the psychic life of man, as religion makes love the supreme attribute of the Absolute Ego. As God is love, rather than intellect or will, so man is feeling with will and intellect as auxiliary activities for realizing his desires and aspirations. The contention is that there are as good grounds for this conception of soul as for that which regards either intellect or will as the supreme attribute, and that this view of the matter is the most inspiring for the

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\*See *Introduction to History of Ancient European Philosophy*—Denton J. Snyder; also *Prolegomena* to his recent book on Feeling.

teacher as well as more in accord with the history of the human race.

## II

The succeeding sections of this study are so much of the nature of a summary of the entire procedure in teaching English, as to make a further abbreviation of it of little value. The design has been to commingle reasons for doing things with suggestions of the method of the doing; and to arrange these under the three general heads—(1) English in the Primary grades; (2) in the Grammar grades; and (3) in the High School.

Emphasis is given to the child's characteristic psychic activity involved in each, as:

Primary—Unconscious Synthesis and Analysis during the first six grades, with Analysis rising more and more into consciousness.

Grammar and first year High School—Analysis as the leading conscious activity with a growing consciousness of synthesis.

High School—Major emphasis on conscious synthesis with analysis auxiliary to this end.

The teacher of English should recognize these different attitudes of mind in these different periods.

The prevailing conscious attitude of the pupil in every grade must be a desire to attain an end. The primary function of the school is to supply the environment that will awaken the desire.

This report places the chief reliance in primary grades (to the seventh year) on oral speech by teacher and children, with a slowly increasing reliance upon the pupil's ability to work alone profitably at anything other than what is mechanical. He matures no faster psychically than he does physically.

The point of departure is from meaning, and the end is other meaning—not from form to other form, in everything but learning the mechanics of knowledge. Children can ap-

preciate and enjoy what they cannot express. The former stimulates the desire for the latter.

There are two movements in psychic growth: (1) *Impression*, from without inward which gives knowledge—and (2) *Expression*, from within outward which gives power. They grow *pari passu*.

Imagination works for power, imitation for knowledge. Knowledge does not become power until the artisan has become an artist.

*Repression* and *license* are another Scylla and Charybdis in the path of the teacher.

The story as an educative agency for power is neither used nor appreciated as it ought to be; especially during the years when the imagination, like the memory, is wildly active.

### III-V

The theory and method of teaching English Grammar presented in this study is not popular. But neither is much else said in these pages.

The doctrine is, in brief, that the subject of study is the sentence, and that the sentence is the judgment expressed in words. The life of the sentence is the judgment. As is the judgment so is the sentence. The meaning is, therefore, the key to the formation of the sentence. To know how to construct a sentence one must know the relation of the ideas in the thought which the sentence is to embody. This is the doctrine in a nut-shell. Grammar does not differ from other studies in so far as what is embodied in the form is to determine the form in which it is embodied.

The Grammar chapter in this book outlines a simple procedure of studying the formation of the sentence along with the study of the judgment expressed by it.

The reasons given for such a study of the sentence are:

1. That the habit acquired of analyzing the sentence to discover the thought will give the person greater facility in interpreting at sight the printed page accurately and with facility.



2. This study of the self in the act of forming judgments introduces the learner to a subjective knowledge of himself in his process of thinking, which will serve as an elementary preparation for the study of other subjective branches of knowledge. It is the only study in the elementary school that helps one to know himself.

The demand for more strong men in the teaching force of the high school is imperative, not because men and women cannot teach the branches of knowledge equally well, but because in those studies which make most for character, strong men are the better teachers of boys. There may be no sex in mind, but there are certainly sex characteristics in human souls.

The opinion has come to prevail quite generally that the test of a good high school is the ability of the graduates to pass the entrance examinations to higher institutions. The average high school graduate is certainly prepared to enter upon the next step in his education, but the influence of prescribed college requirements upon teacher and students is not salutary. The work of the schools too often degenerates into a grind "to pass." The "commissioned—High school" badge may cease to be a mark of honor unless there can be a better articulated movement of the process of education from kindergarten to university. There is a historical reason for this want of articulation which needs to be studied.

A general survey of English in the schools both as to methods and results, reveals the need of radical improvement in our methods of teaching English composition. The importance of this is emphasized throughout this study. The difference between knowledge and power is the difference between accumulating the results of the thinking of others and creating.

We do not properly interpret the meaning of the maxim, "Knowledge is power." Power creates; knowledge imitates.

## THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN THE PRIMARY GRADES OF THE CLEVELAND PUBLIC SCHOOLS \*

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### I. GENERAL SURVEY

*Our Theory in Brief.*—To create or arrange for the child such conditions as shall enable him to react upon his environment and, transforming it, appropriate it; and under the inspiration and instruction of the teacher to pursue an advancing ideal. Self-expression is obviously one of the essential activities of this process; its modes are various. The most universal of these is Language—the subject to be discussed.

*The Content or Subject-Matter.*—The so-called "Language Work" includes therefore all the agencies of the school for the education of the child as formulated in the course of study.

*The Presentation.*—A constant effort is put forth to vitalize instruction by bringing it into direct relation to the actual experiences and inherent interests of the child—to couch it in terms of "the known."

It is our aim to make the child himself, wherever possible, the gatherer and recorder of his own experiences. (In observation work we insist upon individual not class work in observing and recording.) In such subjects as history, literature, etc., each individual teacher takes her own way to attain the

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\*[Among the teachers and schools that have got the highest order of results in the teaching of English are those of Cleveland, Ohio. And after all, of course, the results are what we want. It has seemed to me highly worth while to present here at least a glimpse of how the problem of English is conceived in the Cleveland system of education, what ideas guide, and what means are applied in bringing about such results as have been secured all the way from the first grade to the close of the high school. Through the courtesy of Miss Davis and Mr. Muckley I am able to let the Cleveland plan speak for itself. Even this fragmentary glimpse means much if it is read with care.—EDITOR.]

common aim which is to so present the matter that the pupil *assimilates* it and in giving it back *interprets* rather than *re-produces* what has been presented. An examination of the compositions and composing exercises shows this result to be the object of the work of every teacher in the primary grades, (it is of these only that I write) a result attained with a greater or less degree according to the skill of the teacher.

*To Illustrate the Usual Mode of Procedure.*—In the History work the story of our country is told as a narrative in successive chapters, so to speak, beginning with the simplest stories told of Columbus, the Indians, the Pilgrims and Washington and Lincoln in the first and second grades and continuing through to the present time in the third and fourth grades. This forms the basis of training in oral language. The narrative widens at points of importance and the event or personage around which the interest centers is given special study and becomes the subject of a composition. This subject-matter at this point is specially prepared by the teacher for the purpose and analyzed as to its sub-topics. It is given to the pupils in this wise: first the story is told through simply, following the analysis in the mind of the teacher, without much detail that the pupil may have a bird's-eye view of it as a whole. The teacher then goes back and amplifies each point and, in districts and grades where it is possible to do so, directs her pupils to read upon the subject.

(The analysis into sub-topics, referred to above, is never given as such to the pupils; we wish each to have the occasion and feel the necessity to do his own organization or thinking together the details into a unified whole which constitutes *his* view or interpretation.)

This presentation by the teacher is followed by a more or less free talk or discussion of the subject at one lesson-period, and it is written at a subsequent one. The only help given is the writing on the blackboard of words of which the pupils ask the spelling; this they are quite free to do.

Besides these longer compositions, there are frequent "Com-

posing Exercises." Less formal than the compositions and not requiring so much organization they serve many purposes for training in the use of written speech.

*The Training in Form.*—The Correction of Compositions: One set in three or four is thoroughly corrected in all errors of form and copied by the pupils. (The first draft of all compositions is kept for the Supervisor.) At least one set in three is corrected for spelling alone and in the following manner: The teacher counts the number of misspelled words in each and places that number at the head of the composition, keeping herself a list of the words most commonly misspelled in the set. At the next language period the teacher writes the words on the board and the pupils are set to finding which of these are their words. In the case of the very poor spellers, the teacher places the figure opposite the line in which the word or words occurs. In some schools the teacher skillfully manages to have pupils who have only one or two words to correct help those who have many to find their words, thereby engendering a spirit of mutual helpfulness and social good will. Meanwhile she herself is helping the very poorest ones over hard places. The object of this exercise is to make the pupil self-critical, that he may become self-conscious of his own liability to error. Moreover a pupil who has found and corrected his mistakes, learning to spell them through the exercise of his own powers, has not only gained in power but when he next uses these words will be much less likely to misspell them than if corrected by the teacher and written by him more or less automatically after a copy.

The reason of poor spelling in the pupils all over the country is not for lack of time and good hard work devoted to spelling. In our own fourth grade, for instance, the number of minutes per week given to spelling by our course of study is equal to the combined time given to history and civics, composition and constructive work, literature and nature study. But it is due to many causes, not the least of these is the spirit of the twentieth century that we have to combat, its lack of regard for

law and order and personal responsibility. Another and inevitable cause not reckoned is the composite nationality of our pupils, more than thirty-six per cent in Cleveland being of foreign parentage. Still another cause is the greater range and farther grasp of thought of the youth of today than in the "good old times."

We use every means and all our skill as preventive first, and second as corrective of this tendency to misspell. In the exercises outlined above, a sense of personal responsibility in the matter of spelling is one of its aims and results. (A greater attention paid to acquiring habits of correct pronunciation and clear enunciation will all help immeasurably in preventing errors in spelling.)

Mistakes in punctuation and capitalization are treated in the same manner as the spelling, one set in a group of three being given to this class of mistakes, while errors of structure are made the subject of special exercises which we call

*Constructive Work.*—In the primary grades only the simplest forms of punctuation and most commonly used cases of capitals are taught and these mainly by imitation and use. The simple sentence with its appropriate capitalization and punctuation together with quotation marks and the apostrophe in abbreviations, and the possessive, forms the basis of this work in the first three grades. In the fourth grade we introduce the use of the comma in its two simplest forms; its use in place of "and" in a series, and to set off a name in direct address. I also find children instinctively using or showing the need of the semicolon by using the compound sentence form. Where the class is ready to take up this it is given.

We do not try to do more than introduce paragraphing in the fourth grade. It is first studied in the reading matter, the pupils becoming gradually aware of what constitutes a paragraph before they are asked to try paragraphing their own work.

The outline for "word study" in the Assignment is to be

studied by each teacher and such of the work as is possible and appropriate for her class selected and supplemented by other special work in these lines of which the language lessons, both oral and written, reveal the need.

In many districts most if not all of the work outlined in the course of study can be given, while in the foreign districts the teachers need to spend much of the time in building up a simple common "working vocabulary" of the English language.

In a circular now under preparation I am saying to the primary teachers:—

"If the teacher in each grade will follow the policy of adding to the vocabulary of the children each week two (at least) good, strong, useful *new* words (keeping a record of them before the class if possible), it would result in the accumulation of nearly one hundred specially good words each year which would constitute a valuable property at the end of the pupil's school life.

"To illustrate: take the word *nice* so commonly used and give 'agreeable' and 'pleasant'; or 'generous' and 'accommodating'; 'comfortable' and 'convenient' as some of the meanings which were meant to be conveyed by 'nice.'

"High school teachers complain that pupils have a paucity of adjectives. Let us take the hint and do more direct work in this particular, not, however, confining ourselves to adjectives and adverbs.

"The 'word study' on pages 74 and 75 of the Assignment gives practical hints for this kind of work in 'increase of vocabulary' and 'choice of words'. Let us pay more attention to this feature of the work from now on."

The correlations—the interaction of school agencies—are shown to some extent in the circulars used as guides for details of the work.

## II. FOURTH GRADE READING—DIRECTIONS FOR TEACHERS

Ruskin says, "To use books rightly is to go to them for help; to be led by them into wider sight, purer conceptions than our own, and to receive from them the united sentence of the judges and councils of all time."

Let us keep steadfastly in view the one great purpose in the teaching of Reading, which is, that through the attainment of the art of reading, the knowledge and wisdom and joy of the ages may become his who will exercise it to that end, and coordinately that the learner may become conscious of all it means to be able to read—of all the avenues of knowledge and power thus opened up for him to the end that he be eager to avail himself of his inestimable privileges.

Correct oral delivery, though not an end in itself, is nevertheless an accomplishment which it is the special duty of the schools to give, and should be made a matter of special training. First, the manner of his oral delivery constitutes the proof of the reader's understanding or lack of understanding of the subject-matter; and second, it is the measure of his power and skill to convey as well as to glean the content of the text.

There are two phases in the teaching of reading; the Intensive Study and Extensive Reading. In the Intensive Reading we make an analytical study of selections of literary merit. Its purposes and results are many; the most important are—

1. Development of thinking power.
2. Formation of the habit of studying deeply into a subject.
3. Acquirement of taste for and appreciation of good literature.
4. Cultivation of the higher emotions.
5. A training in the acquisition of knowledge from the printed page.
6. Training in oral reading.

The steps to be taken in this Intensive Study are as follows: The first step should be the *Silent Study*. There are two kinds of study, the first, purely memoritor; the second, for the purposes of *assimilation*, is of the highest order and

requires that a vital connection be made between the experience of the child and the matter to be studied—the knowledge to be acquired. Therefore the silent study of the selection, which is for the purpose of the pupil's making the subject matter his own, should be preceded by a short talk which will explain "the setting" of the story—if it be a story, give a hint of the central interest and put the pupils in touch with it through some related experience or knowledge of their own; the result of this preliminary talk should be an eager interest to read the selection "to find out what it is all about." Sections I and IV in Language Lessons will be very helpful in this part of the work; but besides this the teacher will need to make a thorough and thoughtful study of each selection. The splendid work in the study of literature which is being done almost universally by the teachers this year, will I am sure, bear fruit in this preparative study they make of the selections in the readers and in the treatment of the poems.

The Silent Study accomplishes two things; it gives an acquaintance with the whole which illumines and makes clearer the details of the part; and it gives the pupil the opportunity to gain through the exercise of his powers, what otherwise he is helped by the teacher to get, for he will exercise his ability "to sound out words" and will thus "make out" for himself most of the unfamiliar words the meaning of which he will gather through their association in the sentence or from sections III and IV in the "Language Lessons." It follows logically that if the pupil is set to the task of *getting the thought* from the printed page, he should have an opportunity of *giving it*. With a few exceptions most of the selections are in story form; therefore the second step will be—

*Telling the Story*—The value of this lies in the power of initiative it generates; to get a pupil to stand on his feet and tell independently and in his own phraseology what he has gathered by reading the printed page is a great educational achievement. Every story in the reader has two or more well defined parts, each of which is a unit in itself. Let from three



to five pupils each day "tell" the story—either a unit or the whole story.

The third step, usually in the same recitation period is the *Paragraph by Paragraph Study*. The pupils are set to studying each paragraph in turn with a view, first, to getting the words; for, though many of the unfamiliar words will have been mastered during the independent study, there will still remain for a number of pupils, especially in our foreign districts, words not included in the lists in the Reader, which they do not know and must have help in "making out." But we often find that *they do not realize that they do not know* words and they must have special training to become self-conscious of their lack; if you can accomplish this, it will be a great gain and of universal application. But the chief purpose of intensive study of the paragraph is to get the *full* meaning of the text. To do this effectively the thought must be analyzed and through this analysis we must make the pupil conscious of what we call the "phrase-unit" of thought and expression. (This term is used in the rhetorical and not the grammatical sense; it may be a phrase or an entire clause or a single word.) This analysis is to be done when the pupil first reads aloud the paragraph or sentence and, by his "breaking" the thought, shows us that he only partially grasps the meaning. Let us do this part of the work deliberately that the pupil may have time to absorb and make his own the "knowledge, wisdom, and joy" that is held for him in the printed page.

The thought is also often broken by the child's effort to "read with expression." Let our aim be to get *thoughtful* reading rather than "reading with expression." In the matter of *delivery*, lead the pupil to see that plain matter-of-fact statements and explanatory matter should be read in a natural "speaking" manner; reading in this case is simply telling. In conversation the conversational tones and inflections should be used but not *exaggerated*. In reading selections dealing with sentiment and the higher emotions, do not try to have the pupil read with *adult* inflection and emphasis from imitation or lead-

ing questions; rather stimulate *him* to *feel intensely* within his own range and then express what *he feels*.

Let us strive continually for correct pronunciation and pure and distinct enunciation. The latter should be made a special point in all the phonic work.

The last step will be the *Reading of the Selection as a Whole*. Here let the effort be to have the class read the story through with as little interruption as possible, so as to finish with the view of the whole and thus complete the cycle.

In the reading of poems let each one be, so to speak, a law unto itself. Direct all energies to the stimulation of the higher emotions through an understanding of and sympathy with the subject-matter, to the appreciation of the beauty of thought and expression, to feeling delight in the movement, and to the enjoyment of the rhythm and melody.

Extensive Reading is a correlative of the Intensive Reading and accomplishes, on the one hand, familiarity with books and an increase in vocabulary, and on the other hand fluency in reading, which, analyzed, comprises (1) the rapid recognition of words in sentences, (2) the ability of eye and mind to look ahead, which results in facility in reading collections of words, and (3) that habit of mind which finally leads to the grasp of a whole paragraph, or page even, at a glance.

At an early date in the first term begin the reading in the Supplementary Readers. In some schools it would be well to take the Supplementary Readers of the grade below for this first work. In foreign schools or backward classes the pupils might be given time to read over to themselves at least a part of the selection. This is but a step to the real sight reading which should be given at first once a week, and oftener later, from the Supplementary Readers. There should also be sight reading occasionally from the regular readers.

In reading to the classes be guided by the suggestions in the Course of Study, though not confined to it. Let your choice measure up to the standard of those found there.

The pupil in the Fourth Grade is in a transition period between infancy and youth; his ideals of life are just taking shape, his interests are widening, new sensations and sentiments are awakening and demanding recognition. It is a period of grave responsibility for parent and teacher and in many cases the teacher must shoulder the responsibility of both.

The expansion of interests must be met in the school and a rivalry set up against outside distractions; ideals must be formed on highest models; the emotional development guided in channels of safety. What the child reads enters largely into this. The selections in your Fourth Reader were specially chosen to meet this exigency, but they are only the starting points or guide-posts in the way. What the child learns to love to read and what he chooses to read are the important things.

Will you not, dear fellow workers, meet this responsibility by seeing to it that each boy and girl under your care reads at least *two* good, wholesome books this year? President Eliot says, "The uplifting of the masses depends upon the implanting in the schools a taste for good reading." Thus is our civic duty, as well as our professional responsibility, made plain to us.

## COMPOSITION WORK FOR THE PRIMARY GRADES \*

### I. GENERAL VIEW

*Aim and Purpose.*—The aim of the work in composition should be to bring about a closer correlation between this and the information and culture studies, for the combined purpose of making the work of each more effective and of greater advantage to the other.

*Principles.*—While we all recognize that composing is one of the most important agencies in developing power to think and in attaining mastery of expression, we do not always sufficiently realize that it is one of the greatest instrumentalities in the acquisition of knowledge: first, because to write a thoroughly good composition on any subject requires a comprehensive view of it as a whole, a full and exact knowledge of detail, a discriminative appreciation of essentials, and a clear understanding of the inter-relation of its facts; secondly, the effort to write upon a subject forces the mind to formulate in more or less clear, definite statement one's knowledge of the facts, this having the reactive effect of clarifying one's ideas, of exposing and correcting erroneous notions.

*Plan of Work.*—The composition work will include the two phases — the composition exercises and the inventive composition. The composition exercises, which are based upon the information studies, should be of almost daily occurrence, supplementing the oral work in those studies. One language period per week will, according to schedule, be devoted exclusively to written work in composing. Three weekly exercises will consist of short reproductions of the instruction work, reproductions, more or less close, of stories

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\*[From a handbook of suggestions on the teaching of English, used to accompany the Course of Study in the Cleveland schools.]

and poems, etc., read or told in illustration of the various lessons, or in connection with the literature, short narrations and descriptions, records of observations, etc. They will constitute practice exercises in composing, and will train for the inventive composition.

The inventive composition will be given whenever any one of the subjects under consideration affords special opportunity. Some subject or phase of a subject being rounded up in the mind of the pupil, the facts having been so presented and so unified that he possesses certain definite knowledge of the subject or phase, which by mental assimilation has become his view of it, and which he is able to give out in the logical, completed form of expression termed "a composition."

Sufficient time may be given to the writing of this composition by combining the weekly composition period with that of some one of the other branches, each in turn being thus displaced by the composition. These compositions should come as often as once in two or three weeks, amounting to from fifteen to eighteen during the year. Both the composition exercises and the composition will constitute practice and training in the two most important forms of English composition,—narration and description. Practice in descriptive composition should follow the three lines, description by parts, description by attributes, and description by both parts and attributes. Narrations should begin with the most elementary relation of incidents or facts, and rise by degrees to "story-telling." Greatest care will have to be exercised by the teacher to keep these pure in style at first, or descriptions will almost inevitably intrude into narrations and *vice versa*, and if unskillfully combined, confusion of style and obscurity of statement will result. Therefore, it is desirable that both teacher and pupils enter into a special study of these two forms, to the end that the pupils may readily distinguish between them and acquire the skill to write in either form as directed. When, however, this skill has been attained, then the pupils may be given practice in using the combined forms, but should then

be able to analyze their own compositions, to distinguish each form wherever used, and be able to perceive the reason for its use.

*Subject-Matter.*—To admit the important bearing of the composition work on the information studies brings us to the inevitable conclusion that the former can and should be used as a constituent part of the instruction in the information studies wherever possible. Those we find most adaptable to this concentration are grouped, in the course of study, under the heading, "Language Work," and include that round of knowledge studies which naturally form the main part of the child's instruction, comprising, as they do, a study of the natural world around him and of the peoples and social institutions which furnish the human interest. They are Nature Study (plant and animal), Physiology, Geography, History and Civics, Conduct and Morals, and Literature.

As the work of each grade constitutes simply a part of a whole, it is self-evident that the teacher should be entirely familiar, not only with her own part of the work, but with the entire course of composition. She should be informed not alone as to its theory, but also as to the practical application in detail. She should know the foundation of every single phase of her own work, and also, that her own work should fulfill its appointed purpose, she should have an appreciative knowledge of future development of its every phase.

## II. FOURTH GRADE COMPOSITION WORK

The pupils entering the Fourth Grade should be able to write good descriptions and narrations of a simple character and within the limitations of their knowledge and vocabulary. There should be a fair degree of merit and correctness in the logical arrangement of ideas and construction of sentences, and also in the detail of spelling, punctuation, capitals, penmanship, etc.

*Plan of Work.*—Teachers, whose pupils fail to reach the standard of requirement stated above, should review accord-

ing to the methods of the Third Grade. Several tests will probably be necessary to bring out the points in which her class need special review; these having been ascertained, and specific instruction and training having brought the quality of work of the class fairly up to the standard, the teacher will begin her training according to the methods adapted to this grade. The methods of correlation of the composition work with the information studies will differ from those of the three previous grades in two or three essentials.

In the first place, the information, naturally and properly, rapidly outruns both the opportunity and ability of the pupils to reproduce it in written form. Nevertheless the oral or instructive work will be made to a certain degree, and at certain stages to conform to the necessities of the written work. That is, there will be frequent written exercises based upon the daily work in Nature Study, History, Geography, etc., etc. Some phase of the work in each of these branches which can naturally and properly be made the subject of a written exercise being so presented as to afford opportunity for a "composition exercise." In such instances the teacher will lead the pupils, in the oral recitation, to make a summary of the particular phase of the subject under consideration in a logically arranged, clear, succinct statement, showing due appreciation of essentials and omitting unimportant details.

This work will form the basis of a "composition" more or less extended. It may take the character of a mere "exercise" of a single incident or object, or a simple phase of a subject, as, for instance, the description of a stalk of corn, or of the Monitor; or it may be of much wider scope, being based on the instruction covering a more or less wide field, and being the natural rounding up of a course of lessons. Such as, for instance, the summary of the information they have gathered about grains; or the series of events which led up to the triumph of the Monitor. These latter will be inventive compositions and may require longer time, but in either case, whether in the "exercise" or the more formal "composition," the pro-

duct should be complete in itself, and not fragmentary in character.

Much practice must be given in writing pure descriptions, and pure narrations, before the pupils are given subjects in which both are naturally combined. When, however, they have attained a fair degree of skill in each, they may be given a larger freedom in selecting what to write. Descriptions will frequently be introduced into the narrations, and properly so, but at this stage of his progress the pupil should introduce these consciously and purposely. He should be trained to critically analyze, first, models, and then his own composition, in order to be able to distinguish between the two forms of composition, the narrative and descriptive. He should be given special exercise for practice in combining them with skill and judgment. Descriptions will take on the character of description by parts and by attributes, and much practice given to description of people, in which character sketches form a part. Models for these should be studied with much care, to give the pupils a standard of excellence. In narrations, the originality and individuality of the pupil will have free scope. Care should be exercised to guide rather than control, looking more to the growth in power of self-expression, and making the manner of expression of secondary importance in this instance. In this, however, as in every case, the pupils should be required to pay strict attention to correctness of spelling, punctuation, use of capitals, penmanship, and appearance of manuscript.



## WHAT IS "SCIENTIFIC" METHOD IN THE STUDY OF EDUCATION?

EDWARD L. THORNDIKE

Teachers' College, Columbia University

The facts with which the student of education deals—changes in human beings and the causes thereof—have in many cases already been subjected to scientific treatment in the allied sciences of physiology, psychology, sociology and economics. In the case of such facts, the student of education may consider himself and his work scientific when he and it are approved by the experts in these several sciences. If they do not know what is scientific in their respective fields, none does.

In many cases, however, the problems of education are so specialized that their scientific warrant can come only from within. The rule, then, is that what the expert in the science of education deems scientific has the greatest probability of being so. The difficulty with the rule is that in education one cannot be sure of the expert. Consequently one must fall back upon the experience of science in general.

This announces clearly that power of correct prophecy is the test of scientific knowledge and that verifiability by any competent observer is its diagnostic symptom. In so far as our judgments permit correct prophecy, we may be confident that they tally with objective fact; in so far as our methods permit any competent student to repeat every step of our observations and experiments, we may be confident that they are honest.

There are, however, many stages on the road to a statement of fact or law testable by its power to predict the future. Science starts in mere notions or guesses made as a result of impartial observations; it is elaborated into careful hypotheses in consideration of all the evidence at hand; it is developed by ingenuity in observation and experiment and by sagacity in

inference; it is crowned by adroitness and patience in verification. That work may be scientific which provides only the fruitful guess; or only the ingenious apparatus; or only the sagacity of inference; or only the patient toil of repeating others' experiments. The final test of the scientific quality of the notions we have, the hypotheses we frame, the experiments we devise, the records we take, and the like, is of course their power to progress toward verification and prophecy and control. But this test cannot be applied in advance; the only practical test, here, as always, is the judgment of the best experts to be found.

In the present condition of our science about all that can helpfully be said to its workers with respect to scientific method is that he has the greatest probability of doing scientific work in education who is by nature a scientific mind; who studies and practices the methods of the allied sciences with success; who heeds the obvious warnings of logic and scientific method in general; and who estimates all opinions about education in the light of their verifiability.

The reader will have observed that I have carefully avoided stating any fixed criteria of method by which a student of education may rate his work. Only an expert in the science of education has the right to formulate such criteria of method. And even in the case of the expert, the history of science shows that such criteria are either so obvious as to be futile or else are constantly outgrown or even repudiated by the growth of science. It is not discussion of scientific method that produces scientific work; it is rather a process of selection in scientific work that produces whatever useful ideas we have about methods. An ounce of love for fact, inventiveness and scientific ambition is worth a ton of talk about what is scientific. *Fit faber fabricando.*

## REPORT OF THE SECRETARY

## I. MINUTES OF THE MEETINGS HELD AT ASBURY PARK

(July 3 and 5, 1905)

*Monday, July 3.*—President Edwin G. Dexter, called the meeting to order and announced the subjects before the Society for discussion.

Motion carried to take up the papers in their order in the *Yearbook*, beginning with Supt. J. Stanley Brown's presentation of the place of commercial work in the high school.

Motion carried that a time limit of five minutes be fixed for discussion at any one time, writers of papers excepted.

Superintendent Brown opened the discussion by presenting concisely the essential things his paper stood for.

There was a good attendance of members, many of whom took part in discussion. Those who participated were C. P. Cary of Wisconsin, Burks of New Jersey, Felmley of Illinois, Kirk of Missouri, Noss of Pennsylvania, Seeley and Broome of New Jersey, Holmes of Illinois, Kratz of Michigan, Halleck of Kentucky, and J. W. Cook of Illinois.

The discussion was vigorous and much to the point, but gave minor details a somewhat undue prominence in proportion to the rationale of the commercial courses in public secondary schools and reasons for the liberal motive and enlarged provision for these courses.

(Mr. Brown's paper has since been republished by a large business company that is interested in the movement for liberal and efficient commercial education.)

Motion carried that Dr. Charles A. McMurry's paper on the training of secondary teachers be next considered.

The secretary stated the main thesis of the paper. This was followed by a spirited discussion led by Dr. DeGarmo, of Cornell University. The author's position was vigorously assailed at several points by various members present; but his

main contention, namely, that the training of secondary teachers calls for practice teaching under expert criticism in universities as well as in normal schools, stood firm. Yet serious obstacles and objections to such training were pointed out, showing some peculiar difficulties of the problem, and making it clear that the problem is far from being solved.

*Wednesday, July 5.*—The committee on re-naming submitted the following:

Your committee appointed to make recommendations concerning the re-naming of this society made numerous inquiries and invited suggestions as to a more appropriate name. While all who responded were agreed that relief from our present lengthy name was desirable, yet there was no such unanimity expressed in choice of name.

Since the committee did not unite on the same name, the chairman, in the absence of the other members of the committee, deems it wise to report several of the most popular names and simply indicate the preference of two of its members:

The American Education Society, The American Education Club, The National School Masters' Club, The National Society of Education, The National Society for Educational Research, The National Society for Educational Investigation, The American Society for Educational Research.

Because of brevity and the retention of the larger part of the present name of the Society, two of the committee are in favor of adopting the name, The National Society of Education.

Respectfully submitted,

H. E. KRATZ,  
*Chairman of Committee.*

Motion carried to postpone final action on the report of committee on re-naming until action should be taken on the question of affiliation with the American Association for the Advancement of Science; and the question of re-naming was referred back to the committee for further consideration to report at the February meeting, 1906.

Motion carried authorizing the Executive Committee to organize committees for work as suggested on pages 77-78 of the *Fourth Yearbook, Part. II.*

Request was made to have the *Yearbook* sent to members four weeks before the time of the meeting at which it is to be discussed.

Then followed a discussion of manual training and domestic science in secondary education, discussion being based upon the papers by Gilbert B. Morrison, and Ellen H. Richards.

Following the advice of the Society, the Executive Committee has begun organizing committees for making such investigations and reports as can be made better by committees than by individuals. The committee on college-entrance credit for vocational courses is already organized and well started in its work. Others are in process of formation.

The committee working on the problem of college credit for vocational courses are C. A. Herrick, Central High School, Philadelphia; Paul H. Hanus, Harvard University; W. J. F. Bryan, Central High School, St. Louis; A. S. Whitney, University of Michigan; and Principal Prettyman, Horace Mann High School Teachers' College, Columbia University.

## II. NOTICES TO ACTIVE MEMBERS

*Conduct of Meetings.*—There are three well defined aspects of the characteristic work of the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education—

1. The study and scientific investigation of problems, both theoretical and practical, by members in their respective fields of work.

2. The publication of the results of some of such studies in the *Yearbook* of the Society.

3. The discussion of these published studies at the regular meetings of the Society and at smaller local gatherings.

The National Society ought not to underestimate the value of this third aspect; we should not forget that the nature and purpose of our Society demand a plan and conduct of our discussions that will have the dignity of logical order, effectiveness, and really valuable outcome.

Yet such a standard cannot be reached and maintained unless the Society addresses itself seriously to the problem, and every member gives his earnest and loyal co-operation.

There are several things that will help make our meetings of this high and effective character :

1. The place of meeting should be as convenient as possible for members, but not such as will make it easy for anyone to drop in out of mere curiosity. A large, miscellaneous audience is detrimental to the order, freedom and effectiveness of discussion.

2. Admission to the meetings (excepting general open meetings) should be by personal identification or by certificate of membership.

3. It ought to be better understood that those eligible to enter the meetings are (a) members—both active and associate; and (b) guests—those invited by the officers as guests of the Society, and those invited by active members as personal guests. Occasional open meetings may be desirable.

4. There should be provision for definite and progressive discussion; this, however, should never lessen the freedom or limit the opportunity of any member to take part in the discussion.

5. Any member who wishes to discuss some particular topic or aspect of the subject before the Society, or have such topic discussed, should not fail to so inform the Secretary in advance of the meeting and that topic will be taken up in its logical order or given a special place.

6. The time limits for discussions cannot be determined in advance of a meeting; but experience has proved that both necessity and justice may require a limit to the number of times a member may speak, and to the length of his remarks.

7. Non-members should be granted the floor only upon invitation or permission.

8. The presiding officer needs to indicate the scope and order of the discussion, and then enforce strict adherence to this, unless the Society instruct him otherwise.

All of the above suggestions are derived from our past experience as necessary means to the conduct of meetings of a high order of excellence. It is urged that each member watch

this matter with care until the National Society becomes a synonym for effective and valuable meetings.

*Business Meetings.*—The meeting on Monday afternoon, February 26, will be for Active Members only. Important matters touching the policy, work and conduct of the Society will be considered.

Wednesday, February 28, at 4 p. m., the last session will be held. Unfinished business will be considered and officers elected. Also at this meeting the discussion of the *Yearbook* will be continued.

*Membership and Dues.*—To accommodate members a name is retained on the membership list until the Secretary gets notice to discontinue it. The general business management of the Society also requires that this practice be maintained.

*Miscellaneous.*—The open meeting at 7:45 p. m., Monday, will no doubt be a very large one. It is therefore urged that Active Members gather as near together as possible at the front, else questions and give-and-take conversation will be lost or impossible.

The First Christian Church, where the meetings for members only will be held, is at the corner of Fourth and Walnut streets. The Warren Memorial Church is at Fourth and Broadway.

Nominations for active membership should be sent to the Secretary, or handed to some member of the Executive Committee before 3 o'clock p. m., Monday, February 26.

The Seelbach Hotel will be the headquarters of the Society.

Those members who do not attend the Louisville meetings are urged to take up a study of the *Yearbook* in local round-table discussions.

M. J. HOLMES, *Secretary*.

## III. FINANCIAL STATEMENT

M. J. Holmes, Secretary-Treasurer, in account with The National Society for the Scientific Study of Education:

## Debits—

To cash balance as per statement Feb. 25, 1905.....	\$233 88	
To membership dues Feb. 25, to Dec. 30, 1905.....	301 00	
To sales of books, etc.....	12 20	
		<hr/> \$547 08

## Credits—

By printing and stationery.....	\$162 20	
By office help and supplies.....	64 30	
By traveling expenses.....	69 98	
By cash to Univ. of Chicago (See items and checks) ..	60 28	
By postage and express.....	32 81	
By telephone and telegraph.....	3 55	
		<hr/> \$393 12
Balance due the National Society.....		\$153 96

The University of Chicago Press, in account with The National Society for the Scientific Study of Education:

Statement for Quarter Ending December 31, 1905.

## Debits—

Balance due University of Chicago Press per statement of September 30, 1905.....	\$78 36	
To reprint 500 Second Supplement to <i>First Yearbook</i> , invoice December 30, 1905.....	32 25	
		<hr/> \$110 61

## Credits—

By cash November 4, 1905.....	\$ 50 00	
By sale of publications—		
October .....	\$79 24	
November .....	17 27	
December .....	23 62	
		<hr/> \$120 13
Less returns .....	5 00	
		<hr/> \$115 13
Less 15 per cent.....	17 27	97 86
		<hr/> \$ 37 25
Balance standing to the credit of the Society Dec. 31, 1905....		\$191 21



CONSTITUTION  
OF  
THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY  
OF EDUCATION

[REORGANIZED NATIONAL HERBERT SOCIETY]

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ARTICLE I.—ITS OBJECT

The name suggests the general purpose of the society. It contemplates a serious, continuous, intensive study of educational problems. It stands for no particular creed or propaganda. In aim and spirit and method it seeks to be scientific.

ARTICLE II.—PLAN OF ORGANIZATION

SECTION 1. *Members.*—(1) The society consists of active and associate members.

(2) Active Members. The active members shall, for the present, be limited to one hundred. [This limit is now removed.] Only active members may take part in the discussions.

(3) The chief qualification for active membership shall be the possession of time, ability, and inclination to undertake a serious scientific study of educational problems. A fee of three dollars per year for each active member will be charged.

(4) Election to active membership is by a majority vote of the active members present.

(5) Associate Members. Anyone may become an associate member by paying a yearly fee of one dollar. Such members shall be entitled to receive the publications of the society and to attend its public meetings.

SEC. 2. *Officers and Committees.*—The officers of the society shall consist of a president, a secretary-treasury, and an executive committee, who shall be elected yearly at the winter session of the society. The executive committee shall consist of the president, the secretary-treasurer, and four other active members of the society, of whom two are to be elected each year at the winter meeting. It shall be the duty of the executive committee to carry into effect the will of the active membership respecting the subjects to be discussed at its meetings, the matter which is to appear in its publications, and to present at each meeting names of suitable candidates for admission to active membership.

SEC. 3. *Publications.*—(1) The society shall publish "The Yearbook of the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education," and such supplements as it sees fit to add.

(2) The time of publishing the yearbook or supplements shall be determined by the committee.

(3) These publications shall be sent to the active and associate members of the society.

## ARTICLE III

SECTION I. *Time and Place of Meeting.*—(1) This society shall meet twice a year.

(2) One of these meetings shall be in connection with, and at the same time and place as, the National Educational Association; the other in connection with, and at the same time and place of meeting as the Department of Superintendence.

(3) All the details of these meetings shall be determined by the executive committee.

## ARTICLE IV

This constitution may be amended at any regular winter meeting by vote of two-thirds of the active members present.

ACTIVE MEMBERS OF THE NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE  
SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION\*

- Edwin A. Alderman, president University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Va.  
Zonia Baber, School of Education, Chicago, Ill.  
Frank P. Bachman, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.  
William C. Bagley, State Normal School, Dillon, Mont.  
C. M. Bardwell, superintendent of schools, Aurora, Ill.  
R. H. Beggs, Whittier School, Denver, Colo.  
Ezra W. Benedict, principal of high school, Warrensburg, N. Y.  
Francis G. Blair, State Normal School, Charleston, Ill.  
Frederick E. Bolton, Iowa State University, Iowa City, Iowa.  
Richard G. Boone, editor *Education*, 80 Bruce avenue, Yonkers, N. Y.  
Eugene C. Branson, president State Normal School, Athens, Ga.  
Francis B. Brandt, Central High School, Philadelphia, Pa.  
Sarah C. Brooks, principal Baltimore Teachers' Training School, Baltimore, Md.  
Stratton D. Brooks, superintendent of schools, Cleveland, O.  
Edwin C. Broome, superintendent of schools, Rahway, N. J.  
Elmer E. Brown, University of California, Berkeley, Calif.  
George P. Brown, editor *School and Home Education*, Bloomington, Ill.  
John F. Brown, University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyo.  
J. Stanley Brown, superintendent Township High School, Joliet, Ill.  
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W. J. S. Bryan, Central High School, St. Louis, Mo.  
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Edward F. Buchner, University of Alabama, University, Ala.  
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W. H. Burnham, Clark University, Worcester, Mass.  
B. C. Caldwell, president Louisiana State Normal School, Natchitoches, La.  
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C. P. Cary, state superintendent, Madison, Wis.  
Charles E. Chadsey, superintendent of schools, Denver, Colo.  
W. H. Cheever, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.  
P. P. Claxton, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn.  
David E. Cloyd, 541 West 123d St., New York, N. Y.  
Alexander B. Coffey, Madison, Wis.  
John W. Cook, president State Normal School, De Kalb, Ill.  
Flora J. Cooke, Francis W. Parker School, Chicago, Ill.

---

\*It is assumed that a member wishes to continue membership until he notifies the Secretary of his withdrawal.

- William J. Crane, superintendent of schools, Marshalltown, Iowa.  
 Ellwood P. Cubberly, Leland Stanford University, Stanford University, Calif.  
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 W. H. Elson, superintendent of schools, Grand Rapids, Mich.  
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L. E. Wolfe, superintendent of schools, San Antonio, Texas.







# THE FIFTH YEARBOOK

OF THE

## NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF EDUCATION

### PART II

#### THE CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS

A CONSIDERATION OF PRESENT CONDITIONS WITH SUGGESTIONS AS  
TO LINES OF FUTURE IMPROVEMENT

---

BY

ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY

PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY

---

EDITED BY

MANFRED J. HOLMES

SECRETARY OF THE SOCIETY

---

THIS YEARBOOK WILL BE DISCUSSED AT THE FEBRUARY (1905) MEETINGS OF  
THE SOCIETY TO BE HELD IN CHICAGO. DEFINITE PROGRAM  
WILL BE DULY ANNOUNCED

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CHICAGO

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS

1905



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1906

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SECRETARY OF THE SOCIETY

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Published December, 1906

60-20

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Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill.  
*Secretary-Treasurer*  
and  
*Editor of Yearbook*



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# THE FIFTH YEARBOOK

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION: CONDITIONS: THE PROBLEM

From small beginnings we have gradually evolved, during the past fifty to seventy-five years, a series of American school systems of which we may feel justly proud. Though each state and territory has a different school system, the systems in different states often differing greatly in important features, there is nevertheless such a similarity of aim and purpose between the different state school systems that we not uncommonly group them all together and speak of them collectively as our American public-school system. In this so-called American public-school system we teach sixteen and a half millions of children each year, nearly half a million teachers are required for the work, and for this system we yearly expend over a quarter of a billion of dollars. On an average, 61.4 per cent. of all expenditure is for the one item of teachers' salaries, though the percentage for this item varied in 1903-4, from 37.1 per cent. in Nevada to 87.8 per cent. in Georgia. In but seven states, however, was the percentage so expended less than 55, while in eleven states it exceeded 75 per cent. of all expenditures for schools.

For the training of future teachers for the work of instruction we maintain about 180 state normal schools, upon which we expend about four millions of dollars each year. In addition, more than fifty cities maintain city training-schools for the preparation of future teachers for the schools of these cities, and about 100 private normal schools assist in giving some kind of training to those who expect to teach. Two hundred and thirty colleges and universities also offer special courses and contribute their quota of teachers for the higher work of instruction. In 1903-4, 449 private high schools and 272 public high schools also offered some courses of instruction intended for the preparation of future teachers.

All of these institutions tend to increase the number of trained teachers in the schools, and in most states the number of such is

slowly increasing; but so large is the number who teach but a short time, and so easy is it to enter upon the work of teaching, in most states without the necessity of any training of a professional nature, that the number of trained teachers actually teaching in the different states is not very large. Perhaps, averaging all the different states of the Union, 15 to 20 per cent. of all the teachers in our schools have received some special training before entering upon the work of a teacher. The remaining 80 to 85 per cent. have been prepared by private study, and tested wholly by examination and experience, and have had no special professional preparation whatever for the work of teaching.

Not only is the largest item of expense in all schools that for the salary of the teacher, but the teacher is also the most important single factor in determining the efficiency of our educational system. Hence it is very important not only that the teacher possess an adequate academic and professional education, but that he or she also be imbued with the right attitude toward the institutions of democracy which we cherish, and toward those ethical principles which we as a people hold to be of abiding worth.

Obviously so costly and important a work as that of educating the future citizens of our nation cannot be thrown open without qualification to anyone who wishes to enter it. Just as the state must from time to time, determine what requirements it deems advisable to enforce as to subjects of instruction, length of school term, minimum tax-rate to be levied for education, attendance at school, additional advantages which must be provided, and other items looking toward the enforcing of the educational rights of children, so also must the state, from time to time, set the educational and professional requirements which it must exact from those who expect to teach in the schools which the state has deemed it wise to provide.

To determine whether or not any individual possesses these educational prerequisites for admission to the profession of teaching, two methods are available. One is to examine the candidate by giving him or her a written or oral examination, or both, the examination to be given either by the laymen of the school committee or by a professional examining body; and the other is to accept satisfactory evidence of proper education and professional

training, such as college or normal-school diplomas, or certificates of qualification issued elsewhere, as being the equivalent of the oral or written test. It is not possible, in most states, under present conditions, to use the second method alone, though it is obviously much the better of the two; so for some time to come the two methods must exist side by side.

The idea of requiring those who wish to teach to pass an examination to prove their fitness is an old one. In its rudimentary beginnings it is as old as schools themselves. The examination of the candidate for master was one of the functions of the mediaeval university, and in some form or other it has been in use ever since. With the rapid development of state and national systems of public education during the nineteenth century, an examination of candidates for entry to the teaching profession has come to be one of the established rights and duties of the state. In our own country it has been customary, from the earliest colonial time, for communities to appoint a committee to examine the prospective schoolmaster, and to satisfy themselves that he possessed the requisite moral and scholastic qualifications to be worthy of being intrusted with the task of instructing the young. Unless he could pass this test, he could not be employed as a teacher; and the survival of this old custom, once so common among our people, is still found in parts of New England, where it is made the duty of the school committee to "require full and satisfactory evidence of the moral character" of new teachers, and to "ascertain by personal examination their qualifications for teaching and their capacity for the government of schools."<sup>1</sup> Likewise the very common legal requirement that "no teacher shall be employed in any school supported by the public funds, or any part thereof, until he has received a certificate of qualification therefor,"<sup>2</sup> issued and signed by the proper authority upon a public examination, or upon the presentation of acceptable credential, is only an elaboration of the early idea. To provide for this examination we consider to be not only the right, but also the duty, of the state.

To this end each of our states and territories has established

<sup>1</sup> *Revised Laws of the Commonwealth of Mass.*, chap. 42, sec. 28.

<sup>2</sup> *Revised Statutes of Mo.*, 1899, sec. 9796. Similar requirements are to be found in the school laws of other states.

some form of examination and certification system, by which the selection from among those who wish to teach may be made and the best of a number of applicants may be selected. The different systems vary much in nature, scope, and standards, and some are certainly much more effective than are others in obtaining a well-educated and a professional body of teachers for the schools, and in keeping them alive professionally after they have once been obtained.

In certain New England states,<sup>3</sup> as we have just said, we find a survival of the old colonial system, where a body of laymen, representing the local community, passes upon the qualifications of those whom they wish to employ. In a few other states, as for example Oklahoma,<sup>4</sup> the county has been made the unit and the county examination is supreme. Under this system all teachers must take the county examination in the county in which they expect to teach, and the county certificates are not valid in other counties,<sup>5</sup> and are good but for a limited period. In other states, as for example Alabama,<sup>6</sup> the state examination system rules. All teachers must pass the regular state examination set by the state examining board, even including the graduates of the normal schools of the state. Between these extremes there are many variations and combinations, the usual plan being a combination by which the county grants two or three grades of county certificates, while the state certifying authorities grant professional state certificates and life

<sup>3</sup> Massachusetts and Connecticut are good examples.

<sup>4</sup> See *School Laws of Oklahoma*, Art. XII.

<sup>5</sup> The Oklahoma law provides that three grades of certificate shall be issued, valid for one, two, and three years respectively; that "no certificate shall be of force except in the county in which it is issued" (Art. XII, sec. 7, *Oklahoma Code*, sec. 5820); that "no certificate shall be issued by any county board or county superintendent, except upon public examination as provided for in this act;" and if any officer violates this provision, he "shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor and upon conviction fined in the sum of not less than \$100 nor more than \$500" (*School Laws*, Art. XII, sec. 9, *Code*, sec. 5822). Section 7, however, provides that a county superintendent may indorse a first-grade certificate from another county, "provided the applicant pays the regular examination fee of \$1 for such indorsement."

<sup>6</sup> See the very detailed and elaborate law recently enacted entitled: "An Act to establish a uniform system for the examination and licensing of teachers of the public schools." Approved February 10, 1899.

diplomas to experienced teachers. In most states the two systems exist side by side and frequently overlap in their functions.

Among the plans in use in the different states there is so great a diversity in standards and procedure that the ability of a teacher to transfer from one county to another or from one state to another is in many cases most unnecessarily restricted. Many of these restrictions are unwarranted by any educational standard and serve no useful educational purpose, and some are so absolutely unnecessary and so narrowly restrictive that they almost seem to have been established for the purpose of providing per diem work for the board of examiners, or for the purpose of preventing teachers from elsewhere coming into the county or state to interfere with the law of supply and demand in the home field. From an educational point of view many of the restrictions are indefensible.

In the number and nature of the subjects required for the examinations, the kinds of certificates issued, and the recognition of diplomas of graduation and proficiency in lieu of an examination, there is also great diversity, though there is here a possibility of reducing these to common units so as to provide for a much wider interchange. It will be our purpose, in the succeeding chapters, to examine, somewhat in detail, the conditions which at present prevail in the United States with reference to the certification of teachers, to point out certain tendencies which have manifested themselves, in the process of evolving higher standards, and to offer some suggestions as to lines along which improvement may be made.

## CHAPTER II

### LOCAL EXAMINATION SYSTEMS

#### FORMS OF: FORCES OPERATING AGAINST

The various systems in use for certificating teachers in the different states and territories, though differing much in minor details, are nevertheless reducible to a very few type systems. In Massachusetts and Connecticut we find the town system of local certification. In all the other states and territories, a few distinctive local systems in part excepted, the various systems are reducible to one of three type plans. In the first plan the power of certification is vested almost entirely in the county authorities. In the second plan the power is vested almost entirely in the state authorities, the county superintendent merely performing certain clerical duties in connection with the giving of the examinations and the transmitting of the papers. In the third plan the two systems exist side by side, and two forms of certification, the two often overlapping, are provided for by the state.

#### I. THE TOWN SYSTEM

Massachusetts and Connecticut still maintain the old local examination system, in which the certificating and employing functions are combined in the same body of laymen. This is a survival of the old colonial system. The school committee of the different towns of Massachusetts,<sup>1</sup> and the school visitors or the town school committees in the different towns of Connecticut,<sup>2</sup> are required by law to examine all persons desiring to teach in the public schools of the town. This is to be done by the school committees or school visitors, either acting as a body or through a small committee. The law requires that the school committee (or school visitors) shall satisfy themselves as to the moral character of the applicant and as to his or her "ability to teach the common-school subjects," after which they shall issue to each applicant "a certificate authorizing the holder to teach in any public school in the town or district so long

<sup>1</sup> *Revised Laws of the Commonwealth of Mass.*, chap. 42, sec. 28.

<sup>2</sup> *General Statutes of Conn.*, chap. 140, sec. 2245.

as desired, without further examination unless especially ordered," or unless the certificate is revoked for cause.<sup>3</sup> Normal-school diplomas are accepted in lieu of such an examination in both states, and Connecticut has recently instituted a state examination system,<sup>4</sup> with state certificates valid throughout the state, as supplementary to the local examination system, but not supplanting it.

Previous to 1898, Rhode Island belonged to the same class as Connecticut and Massachusetts, but in that year this state passed directly from the local to the centralized state examination system, under the control of the State Board of Education, and with state certificates valid throughout the state. Speaking of the Rhode Island plan, in an address on "A Quarter-Century of Educational Progress in Rhode Island," Mr. Stockwell said:

Under the original plan the determination of the qualifications of teachers was left entirely to each local school committee, though the selection or hiring was, under the district system, with the trustee. Under such an arrangement there could be no common standard or uniformity. With the best of intentions and the utmost effort there must necessarily exist a great diversity in requirements and as many standards as there are committees.

It was impossible for the results of such conditions to be satisfactory. Accordingly one feature of the law which was passed in 1898 "to secure a more uniform high standard in the public schools of the state" was to take the power of issuing certificates to teachers out of the hands of the local authorities and place it with the State Board of Education. The details of the scheme were left entirely to them, and their plan is simply this: to provide three grades of regular certificates, one to stand for a college or university education, one for a high-school or academic training, and one for preparation in the common elementary branches alone; to which must be added, in each case, some special or professional qualification. A certificate of the first class is called a First Grade certificate; one of the second class, a Second Grade certificate; and one of the third class, a Third Grade certificate.

<sup>3</sup> *General Statutes of Conn.*, chap. 140, sec. 2245.

<sup>4</sup> This law was first passed in 1884, but the acceptance of these state certificates was optional until 1895, when their acceptance was made compulsory with district authorities. (*Conn. School Rept.*, 1897, pp. viii, ix.)

For details as to the Connecticut state examination system see *Rept. Conn. Board of Education*, 1903, pp. 94-108.

Massachusetts tried to institute a similar state examination system, but the law, after it had remained on the statute-book for a number of years unenforced, was recently repealed. (*Acts of 1904*, chap. 234.)

. . . . As a temporary measure, to enable the old system to become adjusted to the new, a certificate of lower grade than the Third has been, and is still, issued, called the Fourth Grade, which can run only two years, and the necessity for which, it is hoped, will not long exist.<sup>5</sup>

Such an examination as that required to be given by the school committees of Massachusetts or by the committees or visitors of Connecticut, when given by laymen, is usually of little value as a test of the preparation or teaching possibilities of the prospective teacher. It is little more than what the district clerk, in states following the county system, uses when he inspects the different properly certificated applicants with a view to employing one to teach the school of his district. To most laymen all teachers are very much alike, and too often much more emphasis is placed on a pleasing personality and an attractive appearance than upon real preparation for the work of instruction. It is difficult for the average layman to understand why anyone of sufficient maturity cannot teach what he has once studied, and why all who have prepared for the work of teaching are not equally competent. When the test is that of a personal and oral examination, it is more than probable that low standards will prevail; and the low wages paid to teachers in some of the towns of Massachusetts and Connecticut indicate that low standards do prevail. Low standards and low wages usually go together.

All such desirable features as common educational standards, uniform and steadily increasing requirements, and a general interchange of the higher certificates are practically impossible under this plan of compulsory local examination by the laymen of each local school committee. In the evolution of a national system this plan represents one of the earliest and one of the most primitive methods of certification. The unsatisfactory results obtained under it have caused it to be abandoned by almost all the states of the Union which have ever used it, and the future will probably see its entire elimination as a means of certifying teachers for the schools of the state. It belongs with many other purely local features which have been eliminated, one by one, in favor of broader and more general state requirements.

Even in Massachusetts and Connecticut the method is fast approaching extinction. The rapid increase in the number and per-

<sup>5</sup> *Rhode Island School Rept.*, 1900, sec. vi, pp. 11, 12.



centage of normal-trained teachers in both states is one important factor in this connection, and the spread of the state examination system in Connecticut is another. The effect of these two factors may be seen from the following statistical tables:

TABLE I

SHOWING THE INCREASE IN THE NUMBER OF TRAINED TEACHERS IN MASSACHUSETTS AND CONNECTICUT IN THE PAST TWENTY YEARS

YEAR	PERCENTAGE OF TRAINED TEACHERS IN		YEAR	PERCENTAGE OF TRAINED TEACHERS IN	
	Massachusetts	Connecticut		Massachusetts	Connecticut
1885.....	25	10	1895.....	31	30
1886.....	25	11	1896.....	32	34
1887.....	27	13	1897.....	32	37
1888.....	27	14	1898.....	32	35
1889.....	27	15	1899.....	35	36
1890.....	28	16	1900.....	36	39
1891.....	29	19	1901.....	38	41
1892.....	30	20	1902.....	40	44
1893.....	31	27	1903.....	44	45
1894.....	32	30	1904.....	46	

TABLE II

SHOWING THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE STATE EXAMINATION SYSTEM IN CONNECTICUT SINCE ITS BEGINNING

YEAR	TOTAL NO. TEACHERS	STATE CERTIFICATES		TOTAL NO. STATE CERTIFICATES IN FORCE
		No. Candidates	No. Receiving	
1884.....	2,909	153	24	24
1885.....	2,998	253	47	66
1886.....	3,038	166	42	90
1887.....	3,092	296	66	126
1888.....	3,122	194	33	166
1889.....	3,116	347	52	152
1890.....	3,226	283	36	113
1891.....	3,300	191	151	303
1892.....	3,344	221	124	172
1893.....	3,415	250	106	211
1894.....	3,998	185	117	258
1895.....	3,633	313	148	286
1896.....	3,722	396	151	336
1897.....	3,796	390	171	584
1898.....	3,947	410	154	608
1899.....	4,092	490	149	708
1900.....	4,175	476	173	786
1901.....	4,252	456	183	854
1902.....	4,320	495	195	780
1903.....	4,400	637	203	1,009

## II. THE COUNTY SYSTEM

In the strict county examination and certification plan, the county superintendent, or the county examining board if such a body has been provided for, prepares the examination questions, gives the examinations, grades the papers, and grants the certificates of the different grades to those who pass, and the certificates, when granted, are not valid outside of the county where issued. Illinois, Maryland, North Carolina, Oklahoma, and Wisconsin are good examples of the strict county plan. In Illinois it is made the duty of the county superintendent of each county "to grant certificates to such persons as may, upon due examination, be found qualified."<sup>5</sup> By passing an examination based entirely upon the common-school subjects the applicant secures a second-grade county certificate which is good for one year, and by passing an examination on "the elements of the natural sciences" and on "physiology and the laws of health," in addition to the common branches, the applicant secures a county certificate which is good for two years. These certificates may be renewed at the option of the county superintendent, but they are not valid in any other county.<sup>6</sup> Similarly, the North Carolina law provides that "the county superintendent of schools in each county shall publicly examine all applicants of good moral character for teacher's certificates on all subjects required to be taught in the public schools, and also on the theory and practice of teaching," and that "no certificate shall be valid except in the county in which it is issued."<sup>7</sup> Similarly, the Wisconsin law provides that "if any person desires to teach in any of the common schools of the state, he shall procure a certificate from the proper examining officer, and no certificate shall have force except in the district of the officer by whom issued,"<sup>8</sup> and, further, that "it shall not be lawful for any county superintendent to indorse a certificate issued by any other county superintendent, nor to extend the life of any certificate beyond

<sup>5</sup> Illinois: "An Act to establish and maintain a system of Free Schools," Art. VII, secs. 3, 5.

<sup>7</sup> *North Carolina Statutes, Revision of 1905*, sec. 4162, as amended by *Acts of 1901*, chap. 4, sec. 37, and *Acts of 1905*, chap. 533, sec. 9.

<sup>8</sup> Sanborn and Berryman's *Annotated Statutes of Wisconsin*, 1899, chap. 27, sec. 448.

the limits fixed by law.<sup>9</sup> The Oklahoma law has been quoted in the previous chapter.<sup>10</sup>

This strict county examination and certification plan, used to be far more common than it is today, and it is gradually being discarded in favor of higher standards and a more liberal method of certification. It represents a narrow and local view of the nature and purpose of public education, and the standards upon which it is based are generally low. In the evolution of a broader system of certification and a system of inter-county and interstate recognition of certificates, the strict county plan represents a stage only a step higher than the town system of Massachusetts and Connecticut. It is a step higher, not so much because of the larger area of a county, for the number of teachers included may be even less, but in that the examining body is a semi-professional or wholly professional one instead of a body of laymen. The strict county plan, though, has so many disadvantages from the point of view of a satisfactory system that the continuance of its use is defensible only where the standards of the state are so low or so widely divergent that a change to any more liberal system would be certain to lead to even worse results. Our schools should cease to be mere local institutions, ministering almost wholly to the needs of local communities and drawing their teachers from the community itself, and should become part of a system of free public state education, drawing teachers from all parts of the state and ministering to the needs of the state as a whole. Localism in the selection of teachers and in the aim of education has been and still is one of the most serious defects of our system of free public education, and as fast as possible those elements which make for localism as opposed to the broader interests of the state, of which narrow restrictions in the certification of teachers is certainly one, ought to be eliminated from our schools.

There should be as little restriction as possible on the ability of a good teacher to move about, either from county to county or from state to state. Such freedom of movement is in the interest of the schools. On the other hand, barriers, as such, are bad, and are defensible only as a protection against less competent teachers. Alto-

<sup>9</sup> *Ibid.*, chap. 27, sec. 450 a.

<sup>10</sup> See footnote 5, Chapter I.

gether too often, though, barriers which are claimed to give such protection are in reality made to serve as a means of keeping capable teachers out. Any protective tariff levied against capacity and training is inimical to the best interests of both the school and the teachers.

As for the poor teacher, of whom we are so afraid, the best method of restricting his or her freedom of motion is to raise the standards for entering the work so as to eliminate such persons entirely from the teaching profession. Such an elimination would be in the interests of the schools and of the teachers themselves. One of the chief reasons why the wages of teachers are so low in some states, as for example Indiana and Illinois, is that the number of opportunities for taking the examinations are so frequent, and the standards for entering the work of teaching are so low, that even these low wages pay a good return, economically speaking, on the investment necessary to begin the work, which is only a common-school education and a little private study. On the other hand, one of the main reasons why wages in certain other states are high, as for example California, is that the requirements for a certificate to teach are so high (a high-school education or its equivalent, or graduation from a good normal school), and the number of opportunities for entering by the examination method are so limited (only one examination per year), that only under high wages would teaching be a sufficiently economically profitable investment to attract enough persons to fill the schools of the state. Even as it is, almost every county in California is suffering from a shortage of teachers, and this shortage can be overcome in only one of two ways—either lower the standards of admission and thus create a surplus of teachers at once, or raise salaries still further and attract enough additional young men and women to the work because of its being made more profitable than other occupations to which these young people would otherwise have gone.<sup>11</sup>

<sup>11</sup> *Resolutions of the California Teachers' Association*, 1905, No. 6. It would be possible to fill all the schools of the state at a monthly wage of \$25, provided we were willing to take the class of candy-store and typewriter girls who can be obtained for such wages. A shortage of teachers is an economic problem rather than an educational one.

## III. STEPS TENDING TO BREAK DOWN THE STRICT COUNTY SYSTEM

With the extension of professional training among teachers and the development of a professional body of teachers in a state, there usually has been an increasing insistence upon the extension of the validity of certificates, on the raising of standards, and on the elimination of all unnecessary barriers to freedom of movement within the state; and this has produced visible results in a number of different directions. While the steps in the process have not been taken in the same order in all the states, and different lines of attack have been made in different states, the steps in the evolution of a better and broader system of certification within a state may be arranged, nevertheless, in about the following order:

1. Permission to have papers written in one county forwarded to another county for grading. This is one of the first steps, and has been used by a number of states which have since passed on to some more general form of inter-county recognition or state certification. We find it still in existence in a number of states, as for example Michigan, where the law provides that "any commissioner may, upon the request of any holder of a second-grade certificate, send the papers written by such person, properly certified and under seal, to the county board of school examiners of any other county for their examination, and such board of school examiners may, at their discretion, receive such papers, and, if they accept them, shall treat them in the same manner as if written at a public examination in their own county."<sup>12</sup>

2. Uniform examination questions furnished to all counties by the state, the papers, however, being graded by the superintendents or school examiners in the different counties. The effect of this has been to introduce a certain uniformity in the examination of all teachers, and in general it has paved the way for future reforms. In a few states this plan, begun voluntarily by the state board of education, and the use of the questions prepared being at first a purely optional matter with the counties, has proved so acceptable that the furnishing of the questions and their use has been made

<sup>12</sup> Michigan: *Compiled Laws of 1897*, sec. 4812, div. 5, as amended by *Session Laws of 1907*, Act 99.

compulsory by subsequent legislative enactment.<sup>13</sup> The resulting uniformity has naturally prepared the way for an optional and later for a compulsory inter-county recognition of teachers' certificates. Enactments giving the state superintendent or the state board of education a supervisory control<sup>14</sup> over all county examinations have frequently followed.

3. Forwarding of papers to the state superintendent for indorsement, thus giving them more general validity. This step marks the beginnings both of inter-county recognition of certificates and of general state certification instead of local certification. Under it an applicant has the right to request that the examination papers which he has written in one county shall be sent to the office of the state superintendent of public instruction for inspection and indorse-

<sup>13</sup> Indiana is a good case in point. For some years the state board of education furnished the questions, voluntarily, some counties using them and some not; but their use has now been made compulsory for all counties.

<sup>14</sup> A few examples of such legislation may be cited.

a) In Arkansas the law makes it the duty of the state superintendent of public instruction to furnish questions to the counties for the examination of teachers, and to prescribe the form of certificates to be issued by the county examiners.—*Digest of the Laws Relating to Free Schools*, secs. 7510, 7535.

b) In Idaho it is made the duty of the state superintendent to prepare "all examinations to be used by the county superintendent of the several counties of the state in the examination of applicants for teachers' certificates," and to "prescribe the rules and regulations for the conducting of all such examinations."—Idaho: *Political Code of 1901*, chap. 35, sec. 1014.

c) In Indiana any applicant, and in Michigan any applicant for a first-grade license, may appeal from the decision of the county superintendent and have his papers sent to the state superintendent for inspection and review.—Indiana: *Session Laws, 1903*, p. 271; act approved March 9, 1903, sec. 4; Michigan: *Compiled Laws of 1897*, sec. 4813, div. 6.

d) In Oregon the state board of education prepares all questions for the county examinations, prescribes the general form of all certificates, issues rules and regulations governing the granting of the different grades of certificates, and county boards of examination must accept in full any grades made by the applicant in any examination held under the authority of the state board of examiners.—*Compiled School Laws of Oregon, 1903*, Art. III, sec. 20, div. 7, 7 e.

e) In Utah the state board of education is required to prepare all questions for the county examinations, is empowered to make suggestions as to their use, and is given authority to prescribe such "rules and regulations as shall tend to secure uniform examinations in the different counties of the state."—Utah: *Session Laws of 1901*, chap. 94, sec. 1.

ment, and, if they are approved, the applicant's certificate, previously granted for one county, is now made valid by state indorsement in some other county, or possibly in any county in the state, and must be accepted by local authorities as a valid certificate to teach. Michigan,<sup>15</sup> Nevada,<sup>16</sup> and Indiana<sup>17</sup> offer us good illustrations of this stage of the evolution of the inter-county recognition certificates. Each state, in the order given, represents a little more advanced step than the one preceding it. In Michigan the certificate is validated only for a particular county. In Nevada a certificate may be validated for one or more counties. In Indiana a certificate is validated for any county in the state.

4. The fourth step in the breaking-down of the barriers of the strict county system is that of general inter-county recognition of teachers' certificates. This has taken different forms in different states, and extends from optional to compulsory recognition, and from the recognition of only the higher grade of county certificate to the recognition of all certificates issued. Optional recognition of only the highest-grade certificate is the beginning of the process, and the compulsory recognition of all certificates issued is the

<sup>15</sup> The Michigan law provides that, if a first-grade certificate in any county is "approved and countersigned by the superintendent of public instruction, and a copy filed with the county commissioner of the county in which the holder of said certificate desires to teach," then such certificate shall become a valid first-grade certificate for such county.—Michigan: *Compiled Laws of 1897*, sec. 4813, div. 6.

<sup>16</sup> The Nevada law provides that "the state board of education shall not indorse county certificates submitted to them for such purpose for use in other counties until the state superintendent is satisfied from an inspection of the examination papers of the person holding such certificate that such indorsement should be made. The county superintendent who recommends to the state board of education that a certificate should be indorsed or made good for other counties than his own must forward to the state superintendent, with such recommendation, the original papers of the applicant, with the gradings given in both written and oral work.—*Compiled School Laws of Nevada, 1905*, Art. IX, sec. 4, p. 26.

<sup>17</sup> In Indiana a recent law provides that "applicants shall have the right to elect (when taking the county examination) to have their manuscripts sent to the state superintendent of public instruction for examination, which license shall not be confined to any particular county, but be taken as qualifying the person to whom granted, as long as in force to teach anywhere in the state."—*Indiana Session Laws of 1899*, p. 488; act approved March 6, 1899, sec. 1.

ultimate conclusion, though this latter usually is not reached until the lower grades of certificates have been eliminated. Oklahoma<sup>18</sup> and Oregon<sup>19</sup> are examples of the optional recognition of only the higher grades of certificates; Minnesota,<sup>20</sup> Montana,<sup>21</sup> and Pennsylvania<sup>22</sup> are examples of the compulsory recognition of the higher grades of certificates; California<sup>23</sup> is an example of the optional recognition of all certificates; Idaho<sup>24</sup> is an example of the compulsory recognition of all but the very lowest (one-year) certificates; and Arkansas<sup>25</sup> is an example of the compulsory recognition of all certificates.

<sup>18</sup> "The county superintendent may indorse unexpired first-grade certificates issued in other counties, on payment of a fee of one dollar, which certificate shall thereby be valid in the county in which said indorsement is made for the unexpired term of the certificate."—*Public Statutes of Oklahoma*, 1903, chap. 73, Art. V, sec. 1, as amended in 1903, sec. 7.

<sup>19</sup> A similar provision is to be found in the *Oregon School Laws*, Art. III, sec. 20, div. 7 a.

<sup>20</sup> "A complete first-grade certificate," with proper certifications as to scholarship, skill in teaching, and moral character, "shall be valid in any county in the state." Complete second-grade certificates, similarly certified, "may be valid in any county by the indorsement of the county superintendent."—*Minnesota: Acts of 1899*, chap. 101, sec. 3, as amended by *Acts of 1901*, chap. 160, sec. 1.

<sup>21</sup> "A professional or first-grade certificate shall be valid in any county of the state upon indorsement as hereinafter provided" (payment of fee).—*Montana: Public Statutes*, Title III, chap. 6, Art. XIII, sec. 1912.

<sup>22</sup> In Pennsylvania a permanent certificate in any county "shall also entitle the holder to teach one year in any other county, city, or borough in this commonwealth, without re-examination, at the end of which time it may be indorsed" by the proper authority, when it becomes permanent for that county also.—*Pennsylvania School Laws*, sec. 297, Act of June 23, 1883.

<sup>23</sup> "County boards of education may, without examination, grant certificates as follows: (b) grammar-school certificates (the only elementary-school certificate issued) . . . to the holders of: . . . (4) grammar-school or grammar-grade certificates of any county, or city and county, in California."—*California: Political Code*, sec. 1775.

<sup>24</sup> "First-grade, second-grade, and primary certificates shall be good in any county in the state for the same period (as in the county where granted) by the holder thereof filing a certified copy of the same with the county superintendent of the county in which he desires to teach."—*Idaho Political Code of 1901*, chap. 36, sec. 1029.

<sup>25</sup> The Arkansas provision is very ingenious. In an "Act to improve the



Other forces tending to break down the strict county system, and to establish a more general and more liberal system of certification for the teachers of a state, are (a) the establishment and development of co-ordinate systems of state examinations and state certification, issuing certificates of wider validity; (b) the increase in educational and professional standards which has led to the abolition of the lower grades of county certificates; (c) the recognition of normal-school and university diplomas; and (d) the growing force of professional opinion as the teaching profession has come to express itself more forcibly than formerly on questions of public educational policy.

The effect of these various forces, working either singly or in combination, has been so to break down the strict county system that it exists today in but a small number of states, and probably will ultimately disappear altogether, as it should. Regardless of what may be shown to be true of certain particular counties, it is nevertheless an unfortunate condition of affairs when the schools of each county in a state are protected from the teachers of every other county in the state by a system of artificial barriers which place the entire emphasis on a written examination, and neglect the much more important evidence of professional training for the work or successful experience as a teacher. The freedom of movement of a good teacher ought not to be limited in such a manner, and he

character of the teaching in the State of Arkansas," approved May 6, 1905, the following provision is made:

"Sec. 1. It shall be the duty of the county examiners of the various counties of the state of Arkansas to hold one or more teachers' institutes for white teachers and one for negroes of not less than one week within the month of June in each year.

"Sec. 4. It shall be the duty of the teachers holding license to teach in the public schools of the state of Arkansas to attend said institutes and to do the work outlined by the superintendent of public instruction.

"Sec. 5. The county examiner, upon finding that the teachers in attendance are entitled to the grade of license they hold, shall indorse the same, and said indorsement shall have the effect of extending said license from the time of its expiration for the time of which it was originally issued; . . . *provided*, that no third-grade license shall be indorsed more than once and no second-grade license shall be indorsed more than twice, and that said indorsement may be made even though the original license were issued in some other county in the state."

should not be subjected to the petty annoyance of an examination which he may at any time fail to pass, merely because the people of an adjoining county want him to cross the line and teach their school. After he has passed sufficient examinations to attain a high-grade certificate, and after he has demonstrated his professional ability by actual work in the schoolroom, his freedom of movement ought not to be questioned. Nearly all argument against such freedom is based on the case of the poor teacher rather than the good teacher. A much better method is to make conditions such as they should be for the good teacher, and then proceed to eliminate the poor teacher by raising educational and professional standards. The strict county system in reality tends to protect the weak by shielding them from the open competition of the strong.

#### IV. CITY CERTIFICATES

These must be classed as another form of local certificates. They are found to be in a number of states in either one of two forms. Either the cities are expressly directed or permitted to examine and certificate their own teachers, or the cities, while required to accept the regular county or state certificates, provide for an extra and supplemental examination of an educational nature as a basis for selecting the teachers who are to teach in the city.

The first form is found in Alabama, for example, where the cities of two thousand or more inhabitants have kept their independence and are allowed to examine and certificate their own teachers, while all other teachers are required to pass the state examinations; and also in some of our larger cities, as for example New York, where the city determines its own standards and examines and certificates all of its teachers.

The second form may be illustrated by California, where the courts have asserted the supremacy of the state in education, and have compelled the cities to accept any valid state or county certificate, whether granted by this state or properly accredited from another state.<sup>28</sup> This the cities do; but one city, San Francisco, has

<sup>28</sup> The California School Law does provide for city boards of examination and city certification (*Political Code*, secs. 1787-93), and these sections are continuously reprinted in editions of the School Law. The courts, however, have long since declared them to be unconstitutional, and city examinations as such have not been held in the state for many years.

superimposed on top of this an educational examination of its own, using it as a means of selecting its future teachers from the great number of properly certificated teachers who each year apply. The possession of a legal certificate to teach, and normal training or good teaching experience, are made a prerequisite for admission to this examination, which is both personal and educational. From the combined markings of all the judges a numbered list of eligible applicants is prepared, and from this list nominations and elections are made as required.

In states where the first form exists the city examination and certification stands in co-ordinate relation with the county or state examining and certificating system. The history of the development of city certificates shows clearly that they have been evolved partly from a desire to secure higher educational standards than the state examinations insured, and partly from a spirit of narrow provincialism. In a large city, such as New York or Chicago, there still may be good reasons for maintaining a separate city examination machinery and allowing the city to examine and certificate the teachers for its schools. If the educational standards of the state are low, as in Illinois, there is more warrant for a separate examination system for a large city than where the standards of the state are high, as in California.

In the case of small cities, though, the provision for city certification is one of very doubtful value, and the experience of most cities is against it. The examination itself is a useless waste of energy on the part of the city authorities, it frequently subjects them to undesirable local pressure, it raises an unnecessary barrier to the freedom of motion of good teachers, and its tendency is to limit competition to the home product, which in turn results in an in-breeding process, low standards, and low wages; and these in turn more than counterbalance any gain, real or imagined, which the smaller city derives from preparing the questions for and marking the papers of its applicants. It is a much better plan for all, except perhaps the largest cities, or cities in states where the standards are notoriously low, to accept the regular state or county certificates, and to require all candidates for a position to secure a certain grade of local certificate before being considered by the city authorities. The lower grades of certificate need not be accepted.

Cities can easily require all candidates to hold a first-grade certificate as a prerequisite to election to a position. If this is not sufficient to meet the requirements of any city, then an additional examination in professional or additional subject-matter subjects may be superimposed. A minimum educational requirement, such as a high-school education for a position in the elementary schools and a college education for a position in the high school, may also be required. The city, however, accepts what the state provides as far as it goes. State requirements are always minimum requirements, and any community ought to be free to go as far beyond them as it desires and is willing to pay for. So far as these minimum requirements go, however, they ought to be accepted by all.

The advantages of such a plan are obvious, and the tendency is certainly in this direction. As state standards have been improved, many of our cities have given up their local examination system and accepted the state or county system in its stead,<sup>27</sup> and such a tendency ought to be encouraged in all legislation on the subject. If state standards are low, then the cities owe it as a duty to the state to lend their efforts toward improving standards.

<sup>27</sup> This tendency is well illustrated by the state of New York, where the cities have gradually given up their local examination system and city certification, and accepted the state certification instead. Only a few cities now retain the city examination.

## CHAPTER III

### LOCAL EXAMINATION SYSTEMS, CONTINUED: EXAMINATION SUBJECTS AND GRADES OF CERTIFICATES

#### I. EXAMINATION SUBJECTS

In almost all of the states having local town or county examination systems for the granting of teachers' certificates, or a state examining system controlling all certification, as in Alabama, the school law enumerates the general requirements and prerequisites to being admitted to the examinations, and specifically enumerates the subjects upon which the applicants for each grade of certificates must pass. Frequently the minimum and average passing percentages are enumerated as well for each grade of certificate issued.

In nearly all of our states the subject-matter test is low. To show this I have compiled a table showing the educational requirements in the different states for those desiring the first three grades of certificates issued by the county or other local authorities. In enumerating the subjects required for a higher certificate I have included all those required for the lower certificates when the holding of such is a prerequisite to the granting of a higher certificate, or when the passing of an examination on such subjects, or the grades obtained in an examination for a lower certificate, are accepted as part of those required for the higher certificate. Hence the table represents not only the subjects upon which an applicant is required to pass at the time of the examination for the second- or first-grade certificate, but the total academic and professional requirement which he is obliged to satisfy in obtaining the highest certificate granted by the local examining authorities. Put in another way, the tables include the branches upon which an applicant would be obliged to be examined were it possible for him, on entering the teaching profession, to become a candidate for the highest grade of local certificate granted by the examining authorities.

An examination of the following table shows at once the low educational standards which prevail throughout the United States in the certification of teachers. This may be due to financial considera-

tions; it may be due to lack of professional standards and zeal; it may be due to general indifference; or it may be due to a combina-

TABLE III  
EXAMINATION REQUIREMENTS FOR THE FIRST THREE GRADES OF  
COUNTY CERTIFICATES

	First Grade	Second Grade	Third Grade
Number of states tabulated <sup>1</sup> .....	37	32	28
Number of states specifically requiring			
1. The common-school staples:			
✓ Reading.....	37	32	28
✓ Grammar.....	37	32	28
✓ Geography.....	37	32	28
✓ Orthography.....	37	32	28
✓ Physiology and hygiene.....	36	30	25
✓ Arithmetic.....	35	31	27
✓ Penmanship.....	35	30	26
✓ History of the United States.....	35	29	26
✓ Civics.....	25	18	13
2. Supplemental common-school subjects:			
✓ State history.....	10	10	0
English composition.....	9	9	4
Bookkeeping.....	6	4	1
Mental arithmetic.....	5	5	5
Drawing.....	4	4	4
Music.....	4	4	1
State constitution.....	4	4	4
Language lessons.....	3	3	1
Current events.....	3	3	2
Physical culture.....	2	1	1
Nature-study.....	1	1	0
Agriculture.....	1	1	0
3. High-school subjects:			
✓ Algebra.....	23	5	1
✓ Physics.....	16	1	1
✓ Geometry.....	11	1	0
✓ Physical geography.....	10	5	0
Literature.....	9	1	1
Rhetoric.....	3	0	0
General history.....	4	0	0
Economics.....	3	0	0
English history.....	1	1	0
Natural sciences.....	2	0	0
Botany.....	1	0	0
Chemistry.....	1	1	1
4. Pedagogical subjects:			
✓ Theory and art of teaching.....	28	25	20
✓ School law.....	10	7	3
Psychology.....	1	0	0
History of education.....	1	0	0

<sup>1</sup>In a few states there are no local county or town certificates, and in a few other states the school law does not mention the subjects of examination, leaving this to the state authorities to prescribe.

tion of all of these; but in any case it is none the less regrettable. In more than half the states of the Union it is possible to secure a teacher's certificate and become a teacher with no other educational equipment than a knowledge of the common-school subjects—the merest rudiments of an education. In about one-fourth of the states no examination upon topics of a professional nature is required, and the prospective teacher, apparently, is not expected to know anything as to the professional side of his or her calling.

This table also shows that practically all of the emphasis for the lower grades of certificates and almost all for the higher grades, is placed on the fundamental studies of the common-school course.<sup>2</sup> Little emphasis is placed, for any grade of certificate, on those more recent additions to our range of elementary instruction which we have come to value so highly. But four states out of thirty-seven require drawing or music, but two states require any knowledge whatever of physical training, and but one state requires any work in nature-study or the elements of physics and chemistry.

We are constantly emphasizing the importance of nature-study and agriculture, yet it is almost impossible to teach these subjects in any adequate manner today because our teachers, as a body, are ignorant of the very fundamentals of the modern sciences.

To be sure, music, drawing, physical training, and nature-study are at present largely directed and taught by special teachers, but unless some emphasis is placed on teachers studying these subjects, they will always continue to be so taught. Few things, after broader general culture and an increased pedagogical insight, could be more desirable of teachers than that all should eventually come to be able to give satisfactory instruction in music, drawing, physical training, and nature-study.

<sup>2</sup> In a number of states the law specifically states that the applicants for the lower grades of certificates shall be examined only in "the common-school branches" or in "the branches of study taught in the common schools," or the subjects for the examination as enumerated in the law are merely "the common-school branches," plus perhaps a little "theory and practice of teaching." See for example: *Arkansas Statutes*, sec. 7577; *Illinois School Law*, Art. VII, sec. 3; *Indiana School Law*, 1903 Revision, sec. 81, p. 75; *Iowa Code*, sec. 2736; *Kentucky Common School Laws*, Art. XI, sec. 133; *New Hampshire Session Laws of 1895*, chap. 49, sec. 3; *Maine Statutes*, sec. 105.

When one examines the table with reference to high-school subjects, it is seen that it is possible to obtain a first-grade certificate in one-third of the states without knowing anything about a single high-school subject, and in two-thirds of the states without knowing any high-school subject except algebra. Of the various sciences, a knowledge of the elements of which underlies so much of our modern life and a knowledge of which must underlie all really valuable work in nature-study or agriculture, it is seen that but little is required. Sixteen states require some knowledge of physics for a first-grade certificate, and ten states require physical geography; but, excepting these two subjects, practically nothing in science is required of the applicant for the highest grade of local certificate by any state. Of history, other than that of our own country, a knowledge of which has a high cultural and some practical value for the teacher, again almost nothing is required for the highest grade of local certificate. One state requires English history for the second- and first-grade certificates, and four states require general history for the first-grade certificate only. Three states require economics, and nine require English literature for the first-grade certificate.

Of strictly professional subjects, about three-fourths of the states require an examination in the theory and practice of teaching for each grade of certificate, while the remaining one-fourth make no professional requirement whatever. A small percentage of the states require school law; one state requires psychology, and one the history of education, for the first-grade certificate only. Aside from these no other educational requirements are made.

Surely it is not too much to ask that all teachers desiring even the lowest grade of certificate issued in any state should pass a creditable examination on the fundamental studies of the common school, on the theory and art of instruction, and on those portions of the school law which deal with the relations of the teacher to the patrons and the school authorities. It would also be well if at least the elements of drawing, music, and physical geography could be added to these minimum requirements. To pass to the other end of the scale, it certainly ought not to be possible, in this day of expanding knowledge and general enlightenment, for a teacher to obtain the highest first-grade certificate in any county



without giving evidence of possessing some real knowledge of the more important high-school subjects. Algebra, general and English history, English literature, physical geography, and at least one science, is a minimum that might be expected. As fast as is possible, every state should move toward making this minimum an absolute requirement for any grade of certificate to be issued. This must be accomplished by gradually cutting off the lower grades of certificate. A first-grade certificate ought to place a premium upon obtaining a high-school education, or its equivalent by private study, and it ought not to be given alone on the basis of a certain number of years of experience as a teacher and the obtaining of high percentages in a new examination, covering those common-school branches on which the candidate originally passed and which he has been teaching continuously to pupils. The teacher who cannot rise above this level ought not to receive a first-grade certificate, and ultimately must be eliminated entirely from the work of teaching.

## II. GRADES OF CERTIFICATES

In the grades of certificates issued by the local authorities the number ranges from one to four, three being the most common number and being used by more than one-half of the states issuing graded local certificates. Six states issue as many as four grades, while California has reduced the number of certificates for elementary schools to one by gradually raising the educational requirements for admission to the work of teaching, and thus cutting off and eliminating all of the lower grades of certificates. In this state admission to the teaching profession requires either a normal-school training or a three-day written examination over subjects which practically require that the applicant shall have had a high-school education to pass.<sup>3</sup>

In about one-half of the states granting three or more grades of

<sup>3</sup> "County boards of education may, on examination, grant certificates as follows: Grammar-school certificates: to those who have passed a satisfactory examination in the following studies: reading, English grammar and advanced composition, English and American literature, orthography and defining, penmanship, drawing, vocal music, bookkeeping, arithmetic, algebra to quadratics, plane geometry, geography (physical, political, and industrial), elementary physics, physiology and hygiene, history of the United States and civil government, general history, school law, and methods of teaching."—*California Political Code*, sec. 1772.

certificates, an examination in additional subjects is not required to secure a second-grade certificate instead of a third-grade certificate, and in about one-third of the states granting two or more grades of certificates an examination in additional subjects is not required to secure a first-grade instead of a second-grade certificate. In these states the basis for granting the higher grade of certificate is, not additional preparation, but higher percentages made in the examinations.<sup>4</sup> About two-thirds of the states impose a teaching experience requirement before granting the highest grade or grades of local certificate.<sup>5</sup>

Though most of the states provide for two or more grades of certificates, it can hardly be said that we have a graded system of certification, leading from lower to higher certificates, except in those states where additional education or examinations are required for the higher grades. This is the case in only about one-half of the states, and in many of these the system is imperfect. Kentucky,<sup>6</sup> for example, with its grades of certificates based wholly on percentages, cannot be said to have a graded system of certification in any real sense of the term. Nebraska<sup>7</sup> and Missouri,<sup>8</sup> on the other hand, have a real graded system.

<sup>4</sup> Kentucky is a good example of this. The law here provides that three grades of county certificates shall be issued, based on the following grades: first-class certificate: average, 85 per cent. or over; minimum grade in any subject, 65 per cent.; second-class certificate: average, 75 per cent.; minimum grade, 55 per cent.; third-class certificate: average, 65 per cent.; minimum grade 50 per cent.—*School Law of Kentucky*, 1904 edition, sec. 133, p. 100.

<sup>5</sup> Minnesota is an example of this class of states, the law providing that "no teacher shall receive a complete first-grade or second-grade certificate who has not had successful experience in teaching for at least eight months for a first-grade, and five months for a second-grade."—Minnesota: *Acts of 1907*, chap. 160, sec. 1; *School Law*, sec. 265.

<sup>6</sup> See footnote 4 above.

<sup>7</sup> In this state the law (*School Law of Nebraska*, Subdiv. 9a, secs. 7, 8, 9) establishes the following standards for the three grades of county certificates:

1. For the third-grade certificate: "Approved moral character and a satisfactory examination in orthography, reading, penmanship, geography, arithmetic,

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<sup>8</sup> Missouri has a meritorious graded system which incorporates the main features of both the Kentucky and Nebraska plans. Additional subjects are required for each higher grade of certificate (three grades are issued in Nebraska), and in addition the law requires that "to obtain a first-grade certifi-

In a number of states the lowest grade of certificate is regarded merely as a trial certificate. As such it may perhaps serve a useful purpose. Much will depend upon the attitude assumed toward it by the local certifying authorities. In far too many cases, however, it is a certificate held by the weakest members of the teaching ranks—the immature, the poorly prepared, and the misfits of the teaching profession. In some states this lowest grade of certificate is issued for as short a period as six months, and in at least one state, if the certificate expires before the end of the term, the teacher may continue and finish the term regardless of the lack of a certificate. In a number of states as many as two or three such trial certificates may be granted to the same person, and in a few states there is no express legal prohibition against the granting of any physiology and hygiene, English composition, English grammar, and United States history." (Sec. 9.)

2. For the second-grade certificate: All subjects required for a third-grade, and in addition "civil government, bookkeeping, blackboard drawing, theory and art of teaching, and the elements of agriculture, including a fair knowledge of the structure and habits of the common plants, insects, birds, and quadrupeds." After September 1, 1907, one or more years of successful experience as a teacher, or "at least eight weeks' normal training in a college or university, normal school of approved standing in this or in another state, or in a state junior normal school of Nebraska, or in a high school of Nebraska approved by the state superintendent of public instruction as being equipped to give such normal training," will be required in addition. (Sec. 8.)

3. For the first-grade certificate: All subjects required for the second-grade, and in addition "algebra, botany, geometry, and physics;" and after September 1, 1907, the same additional requirements as for the second-grade except that the minimum period in such training-schools shall be twelve weeks instead of eight. (Sec. 7.)

The Nebraska law contains no express provision whereby the possession of a live certificate of any lower grade shall absolve the applicant for a higher-grade certificate from an examination in the subjects represented by the live lower-grade certificate, as is found in the law of a few states, but with this added provision the Nebraska standards for a graded series of county certificates would be among the best of any state.

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cate, applicants shall have had one year's experience in teaching, and shall maintain an average grade of 90 per cent.; to obtain a second-grade, an average grade of 85 per cent.; and to obtain a third-grade, an average grade of 80 per cent.; but no certificate of any grade will be granted to any applicant whose grade in any branch falls below 60 per cent."—*Missouri Revised Statutes*, 1899, sec. 9958, as amended by *Session Acts of 1901*.

number of such certificates to any applicant. Michigan, for example, grants four grades of teachers' certificates and permits three issues in any county of the fourth or lowest grade to any applicant.<sup>9</sup> When this number is exhausted, the candidate can move over the line to the next county and begin the process over again. Indiana, another state which grants four grades of certificates, prohibits the renewal of the lowest grade<sup>10</sup> (good for but six months), though there is no prohibition against the granting of any number of consecutive third-grade (one-year) certificates. In Arkansas, a state granting a third-grade certificate valid for six months only, we find the unique provision in the law that, if a teacher's "license expires by limitation during any school, such expiration shall not have the effect to interrupt his school, or to debar his claim . . . for the payment of wages."<sup>11</sup> Bad as this provision may at first seem, it is only simple justice. If the teacher was prepared to begin the school and teach it for the larger part of the term, he is certainly prepared to finish the term. What should be done is to require the applicant to come up to at least the standard set for the twelve-months' certificate, or not to certificate him at all.

In Minnesota<sup>12</sup> and South Dakota<sup>13</sup> the county superintendent has power, "when he deems it necessary, to issue a third grade of certificate on his own examination, for a term of one year;" though such certificate, in each state, must designate the particular school district in which it is to be valid, it is not renewable without a new examination, and not more than two such can be granted to the same person in any county. In South Dakota the examination for the third-grade certificate must be given on the subjects required for a second-grade certificate. On the other hand, this third-grade cer-

<sup>9</sup> "Not more than three third-grade certificates of Class B shall be granted to the same person in any county."—*Michigan Compiled Statutes of 1897*, sec. 4813, as amended by *Session Laws of 1901*, Act 99.

<sup>10</sup> "No person who hereafter receives a six-months' license in any county shall be again thereafter licensed for said county unless he obtains a grade which shall entitle him to receive at least a twelve-months' license."—*School Law of Indiana*, 1903 edition, p. 75.

<sup>11</sup> *Arkansas Statutes*, sec. 7649.

<sup>12</sup> Minnesota: *Session Laws of 1899*, chap. 101, sec. 3, as amended by *Laws of 1901*, chap. 160, sec. 1.

<sup>13</sup> South Dakota: *Revised Code of 1903*, sec. 2294.

tificate may be granted to applicants only seventeen years old, while for the other certificates the applicants must be eighteen years old. This certainly is a bad provision. In Kentucky <sup>14</sup> a third-grade certificate is granted for one year, but only one such certificate may be granted to the same person in any county, and it has recently been provided <sup>15</sup> that it shall not be valid for teaching "in any district reporting fifty-five or more pupil (census) children." This virtually limits it to schools having an enrolment of thirty or less children. In Nebraska but one third-grade certificate may be issued to any applicant, it is not valid except in the county where issued, and is valid "for such term as the county superintendent may deem best, but not exceeding one year." <sup>16</sup> In Idaho, where three grades of certificates are issued, a third-grade cannot be granted to the same person a second time.<sup>17</sup>

The general undesirability of these low-grade certificates may be inferred from these limitations, and from the fact that a number of states have abandoned such certificates altogether. Similar citations might be made to the laws of many other states. Almost everywhere the third-grade certificate, or the third- and fourth-grades in certain states, are certificates the existence of which are defensible only on the ground that it is necessary to grant such certificates under the low-wage system which prevails in order to provide a sufficient number of teachers to teach the schools. Such low-grade and low-standard certificates do not provide the schools with the right kind of teachers, and the reason for continuing their existence is economic rather than pedagogical. What the teaching profession should demand is that such low-grade certificates be eliminated without further delay, and that the places of such teachers be taken by teachers of broader education and culture. That this might result in a temporary shortage of teachers is nothing with which the teaching profession need to concern itself, as that is a question for the taxpayers and not the teachers to handle. There will be no serious shortage of teachers in any state under reasonably high standards, if teachers are once paid a yearly salary commen-

<sup>14</sup> Kentucky: *Common School Laws*, 1904, pp. 99, 100.

<sup>15</sup> This took effect on and after July 1, 1894. (*Kentucky Acts of 1893*.)

<sup>16</sup> *School Laws of Nebraska*, subdiv. 9 a, sec. 4, div. 3.

<sup>17</sup> Idaho: *Political Code*, chap. 36, sec. 1028.

surate with the training and ability demanded by the work, and if the conditions of tenure are made reasonably secure. One of the most important services which the teaching profession could render in many states, after the work of instruction, would be the starting of a movement looking toward the entire elimination of these low-standard third- and fourth-grade certificates, and the raising of the educational and professional requirements for the first- and second-grade certificates.

This process of elimination is taking place slowly at present in many parts of the United States. The case of California<sup>18</sup> has been mentioned. Nevada<sup>19</sup> has also begun a similar process by recently providing that the primary county certificate (second-grade) shall not be renewable after the year 1897. In Minnesota and South Dakota the elimination of the third-grade certificate is in process of accomplishment.<sup>20</sup> In North Dakota a recent amendment to the Statutes<sup>21</sup> provides that "after January 1, 1908, county certificates shall be of two grades only," the third-grade, or one-year certificate, being entirely eliminated. In Delaware<sup>22</sup> the provisional one-year certificate, which has been the third-grade certificate of that state, was entirely abolished in 1901. In states where the inter-county recognition of certificates is common there is a quite general refusal to recognize a third- or fourth-grade certificate, and in states where certificates are renewable without examination at their expiration, third-grade certificates are almost never so renewable. The movement looking toward the entire abolition of these low-grade certificates is a good movement and it ought to be encouraged. There is no pedagogical reason for their retention, and economic reasons should be referred to those to whom they belong.

<sup>18</sup> This was accomplished in 1901.

<sup>19</sup> *School Law of Nevada*, 1905 edition, p. 27, sec. 7.

<sup>20</sup> See footnotes 12 and 13 of this chapter.

<sup>21</sup> *North Dakota Statutes*, sec. 741.

<sup>22</sup> *Delaware: Session Laws of 1901*, chap. 113.

## CHAPTER IV

### LOCAL EXAMINATION SYSTEMS, CONTINUED: VALIDITY OF CERTIFICATES: NUMBER OF EXAMINATIONS: SPECIAL EXAMINATIONS AND TEMPORARY CERTIFICATES: FEES: RENEWALS

#### I. VALIDITY OF CERTIFICATES

The length of time for which the different grades of certificates are valid varies in the different states. One year for third-grade, two years for second-grade, and three years for first-grade are quite common periods.<sup>1</sup> In Michigan, Kentucky, and Texas<sup>2</sup> the first-grade certificate is valid for four years, the second for either three or two years, and the lowest for one year. In Illinois, Iowa, and North Carolina but two grades<sup>3</sup> are granted, and these are good for but one and two years respectively. In a few states the period is much longer, as for example Delaware,<sup>4</sup> where the validity of the first-grade certificate was raised, in 1901, from two up to five years, and that of the second-grade certificate from one up to two years; in Alabama,<sup>5</sup> where first-grade certificates are valid for six years, second-grade certificates for four years, and third-grade certificates for two years; in Minnesota,<sup>6</sup> where the first-grade certificates are

<sup>1</sup> Indiana, Missouri, and Nebraska are examples of this. In Nebraska the certificates may be valid for a still shorter time, as the law gives the county superintendent authority to terminate a three-year first-grade certificate at the end of two years, a two-year second-grade certificate at the end of one year, and a third-grade certificate, nominally valid for one year, may be terminated at any time, "at the discretion of the county superintendent of the county in which the holder of such certificate shall teach."—*School Laws of Nebraska*, subdiv. 9 a, sec. 4, divs. 1-3.

<sup>2</sup> Michigan: *Compiled Laws*, sec. 4813, div. 6; *Kentucky Common School Laws*, 1904, edition, sec. 133; *Texas School Laws*, 1905 edition, sec. 85.

<sup>3</sup> *School Laws of Illinois*, Art. VII, sec. 3; *Iowa Code*, sec. 2737; *North Carolina Code*, sec. 4162.

<sup>4</sup> *Delaware Session Laws of 1901*, chap. 113.

<sup>5</sup> "An Act to establish a uniform system for the examination and licensing of teachers of the public schools of Alabama;" approved February 10, 1899, sec. 15.

<sup>6</sup> Minnesota: *Session Laws of 1899*, chap. 101, sec. 1; *School Laws*, sec. 263.

valid for five years, and the second-grade certificates for two years; and in California,<sup>7</sup> where the one elementary-school certificate granted is valid for six years, and is renewable. In Connecticut and Massachusetts the certificate granted by the local school committee is usually valid as long as the teacher remains in the school.

## II. NUMBER OF EXAMINATIONS

Quite generally, in recent years, there has been a tendency to reduce the number of examinations given each year so as not to keep the examination door open too continuously. Not many years ago it was a much more general custom than it is today to provide a monthly examination for teachers' certificates, and to give any applicant as many trials as he had dollars to put up on the venture. It was even possible in certain states, and still remains so in a very few, for a candidate to store up grades on subjects in which he did pass, and thus finally secure a certificate by passing on a part of the list at each examination. This usually entitled him to the lowest grade of certificate issued, and enabled him to go out and compete for schools at whatever "wages" the district trustee would pay.

Much of this has been abolished within recent years, and there is today a tendency in most states, though often not very well marked as yet, to reduce the number and to minimize the importance of the examination as a means of recruiting the ranks of the teaching profession. Indiana has recently reduced the number of examinations from twelve to eight per year,<sup>8</sup> and could still further reduce the number a half to three-fourths with advantage. Iowa and Nebraska<sup>9</sup> are examples of states which keep the examination mill going twelve months in the year, and the only limit to the persistent applicant's opportunity to try for the lowest grade of certificate is his dollars in Nebraska and his dollar-and-a-half in Iowa. Texas<sup>10</sup> holds five examinations each year. Quarterly examinations are very common (after-biennial being the most frequent of any number)—Arizona, Arkansas, Illinois, Kentucky, Montana, and North Dakota belonging to this class. California and Idaho have reduced

<sup>7</sup> *California Political Code*, sec. 1771, divs. 3 and 4.

<sup>8</sup> *School Law of Indiana*, 1903 edition, p. 75, sec. 81.

<sup>9</sup> *Iowa Statutes*, sec. 2735. *Nebraska School Laws*, subdiv. 9 a, sec. 11.

<sup>10</sup> *School Law of Texas*, 1905 edition, sec. 76.



the number of examinations still further and provide but one each year.

While perhaps it is not desirable to discriminate among applicants with reference to the number of opportunities anyone may have to try the examinations when offered, it certainly is desirable to limit the number of opportunities to try the examinations each year for all. In proportion as the professional standards of the state are advanced, and as normal- and university-trained teachers increase in number, the examination ought to be decreased in importance. At its very best, it is a very imperfect means of testing the ability of any applicant to teach a school, as everyone who has had anything to do with the professional training of teachers knows. Those who stand highest in the examinations not infrequently make poor teachers, and the opposite is very often true. At best a written examination can test only memory of principles and certain academic knowledge, and is in no way a test of possible teaching skill or adaptability to the work of a teacher. A high degree of native retentiveness for facts rather than the ability to teach is what a written examination really searches out, and it not infrequently happens that a well-trained teacher fails to pass a required examination, or that some immature and unfit person makes a high average. Only a few years ago an associate superintendent of New York City, who had been appointed because of peculiar ability and fitness for the position, failed to pass the examination required before taking up the work, while the educational press last year announced that a boy of eleven years of age had passed the county teachers' examination in one of the Pennsylvania counties with an average of 98 per cent. Similar cases are familiar to most school officers.

Just as fast as can be done, the written examination, as the means of entering the work of teaching, ought to be decreased in importance, and eventually it ought to be either reduced to a purely professional test or be entirely eliminated. When that time comes, and not until then, can we be said to have a well-educated and a professionally trained teaching force. Excepting a few favored localities, we cannot be said to have either today. Our teachers work largely on enthusiasm and devotion, and these help them over many a difficulty, but altogether too frequently their work is lacking in insight and in fundamental grasp of the problems involved. Alto-

gether too often it is the work of the amateur rather than the work of the master. One of the best evidences of this lack of professional education is the way our teachers' institutes are conducted. In a general way, the rank and file of our teachers can be counted on to swallow almost anything that is given them. Almost any kind of a fakir can command their attention.

One of the first moves in the direction of developing an educated and a trained teaching force for a state is to reduce the number of examinations given each year, and, while keeping the method open as a necessity, to place the main emphasis on the securing of trained teachers possessing credentials which in themselves are valid for certificates, and also on the payment of such salaries as will attract trained teachers to the teaching profession of the state. The subjecting of professionally trained teachers to technical tests and the toleration of low wage standards are both wrong, and the teaching profession should place itself strongly in opposition to both of these things. One of the first, one of the most important, and one of the most fundamental of all problems in the majority of our states is that of increasing educational standards and salaries. Four examinations a year are certainly enough for any state, and two would be a much better number. If this will not certificate enough teachers to fill the schools of the state, then the problem is an economic and not an educational one, and the taxpayers and not the teachers ought to be made to face and solve it. The task of the teachers of a state is to press for standards that are right and proper, and then look to the taxpayers to provide the necessary funds to pay for the kind of teachers demanded. So long as the teachers of a state tolerate frequent and low standard examinations, they cannot expect salaries to rise.

### III. SPECIAL EXAMINATIONS AND TEMPORARY CERTIFICATES

Closely connected with the question of the number of examinations and the certification of enough teachers to fill the schools of the state is the question of special examinations and the granting of temporary credentials. There is some variance in the practice of the different states in this matter, but more than half of the states make some provision for such special examinations. In Arkansas, for example, where four regular examinations are held each year,

the county examiner is empowered to grant private examinations "on the written request of the directors of the district in which the teacher proposes to teach,"<sup>11</sup> when public necessity seems to demand it; in Iowa, with a regular examination at the county seat every month in the year, "special examinations may be held elsewhere at the discretion of the county superintendent;"<sup>12</sup> in Indiana, with eight regular examinations a year, a special examination "may be held at any time upon the written request of school boards;"<sup>13</sup> in Nebraska, with twelve regular examinations each year, the county superintendent may grant temporary certificates to teach, until after the results of the next regular examination are known, to any person "who can show satisfactory reasons for failing to attend such examinations and satisfactory evidence of qualifications;"<sup>14</sup> and in Montana the county superintendent "may grant a temporary certificate to teach until the next regular examination, to any person applying at any other time . . . who can furnish satisfactory reasons for failing to attend such examination," or who holds a certificate "of like grade granted in another county," or "upon certificates or diplomas showing fitness for the profession of teaching."<sup>15</sup>

On the other hand, Kentucky provides that four regular examinations shall be held in May, June, July, and August, of each year, and "no examinations shall be held at any other time whatever;"<sup>16</sup> and in California there are no special examinations whatever, and county superintendents cannot grant temporary permits to teach unless the applicant is in possession of credentials or diplomas which will entitle him to receive a regular certificate, without examination, at the next regular meeting of the county board of education.<sup>17</sup>

What we have just said above with reference to minimizing the importance of, and gradually eliminating, the regular examination as a means of entering the teaching profession applies with still

<sup>11</sup> *Arkansas Statutes*, sec. 7568.

<sup>12</sup> *Iowa Code*, sec. 2735.

<sup>13</sup> *Indiana School Law*, 1905 edition, sec. 81, p. 75.

<sup>14</sup> *Nebraska School Law*, subdiv. 9 a, sec. 11.

<sup>15</sup> *General School Law of Montana*, Art. XIII, sec. 1911; Art. II, sec. 1739.

<sup>16</sup> *Common School Laws of Kentucky*, 1904 edition, sec. 63.

<sup>17</sup> *California Political Code*, sec. 1543, div. 7.

greater force to the granting of special examinations and the issuance of temporary certificates. While fairly satisfactory reasons can always be advanced for special examinations in individual cases, by far the best way is to cut them out altogether, and to grant temporary certificates only to those whose credentials and evidence of professional fitness would entitle them, under a liberal plan for inter-county and interstate recognition of certificates, to regular certificates, at the proper time, without examination. Certainly in a state providing six to twelve regular examinations a year there is little reason for holding additional special examinations, and doubtless they could be dispensed with entirely without any bad effects on the schools. Perhaps the chief effect would be to force trustees to pay a little more, and to come to a decision as to teachers a little earlier in the year; and this would be a gain rather than a loss. The teacher from abroad, possessed of proper credentials, would in no way be affected by such action.

#### IV. FEES

The state must, as we have frequently said, require those who expect to teach its children to pass an efficiency test; and from time to time, as conditions warrant, the state should increase the requirements demanded for entering the work. The test is necessary, and all prospective teachers must be required to take it, in one form or other. This test is erected by the state for its own protection, but in more than four-fifths of the states the teacher, and not the state, pays the expense of this test in the form of an examination or certification fee.

This is nothing more than a form of petty graft imposed on the most poorly paid of all public servants, and against which the teacher has no recourse. This fee is quite generally imposed, not only for the examination, but also for a renewal or for the indorsement of a certificate in another county or state,<sup>18</sup> and varies in amount from one to three dollars for county certificates, and from one to ten dollars for state certificates. Each time a teacher makes at the examination means another dollar to the fund, and this system of

<sup>18</sup> Quite a common provision is that a certificate from elsewhere will not be accepted or indorsed "until the applicant has paid the regular examination fee" into the local treasury.

fees, besides being wrong in principle, has a distinct tendency toward building up a formidable examination machinery, which in turn stands in the way of the recognition of diplomas and certificates from elsewhere and blocks the way for other progressive reforms. A careful reading of the Alabama law would lead one to conclude that this has been the effect there.

The examination is a state necessity for the protection of the children of the state, and the state should assume the expense of it and not ask the teachers to pay for it, even if the money is turned over to the "institute fund." Our national government has found it necessary to erect a civil-service test for its future employees in most branches of the public service, but the national government pays the expenses of the civil-service commission and provides the examinations free to all who wish to try them. Maryland and Delaware, two small and comparatively poor states, form commendable examples in this respect. The Maryland law provides:

The county superintendent shall hold regular examinations of teachers at such times as the board may direct. . . . No superintendent shall be allowed to charge any fees for the issuing of certificates to teachers; and if any superintendent shall be found guilty of charging or receiving any fee or reward directly or indirectly for issuing any certificate to a teacher, he shall be dismissed from office.<sup>19</sup>

The Delaware law similarly provides that "examinations shall be free to all."<sup>20</sup>

## V. RENEWALS

In about three-fourths of the states some provision is made whereby a certificate, at least one of the highest grade, may be renewed without the teacher being under the necessity of taking a new examination. On the other hand, in about one-fourth of the states there is no provision whatever for the renewal of any certificate, and the teacher must pass a new examination whenever his or her certificate expires. Indiana,<sup>21</sup> Michigan, Iowa, Delaware, Ala-

<sup>19</sup> *School Law of Maryland*, chap. xi, sec. 65.

<sup>20</sup> *Delaware School Law*, as approved May 12, 1898, sec. 23.

<sup>21</sup> Indiana might be claimed as an exception, because if one holds two three-year certificates in succession the second is made permanent for the county at the end of the sixth year, so long as the holder continues to teach. The second three-year certificate must, however, be obtained by an examination.

bama, and Oklahoma are examples of states where there is no renewal of any certificate. Idaho<sup>22</sup> is an example of a state where the first-grade certificate only is renewable; and Montana,<sup>23</sup> Nebraska,<sup>24</sup> and Minnesota<sup>25</sup> are examples of states where the first and second grades are renewable. In California<sup>26</sup> and Nevada<sup>27</sup> all certificates are renewable, though in these states all the lower grades of certificates have been eliminated. In Illinois<sup>28</sup> all renewals are at the option of the county superintendent. In Missouri<sup>29</sup> a third-grade certificate may be renewed once, a second-grade certificate twice, and a first-grade certificate any number of times. The Arkansas<sup>30</sup> provision for renewal by institute attendance has been cited previously, and a somewhat similar provision is to be found in the Texas<sup>31</sup> law.

In a few states provision is also made whereby a county certificate becomes permanent for the county where issued after a teacher has taught a certain number of years. In Indiana the law<sup>32</sup> provides that

any person who has previously taught for six consecutive years in said common schools, and shall hereafter obtain a three years' license (first-grade) to teach therein, so long as he teaches the above named subjects shall be forever after exempt from examination; but if such person shall, at any time after said examination occurs, suffer a period of one year to pass without having taught one full school year in the common schools of the state, except in

<sup>22</sup> "The county superintendent may renew first-grade certificates at their expiration so long as the teacher is actually engaged in teaching."—*Idaho Political Code*, chap. 36, sec. 1028.

<sup>23</sup> *General School Law of Montana*, Art. XIII, sec. 1911.

<sup>24</sup> *Nebraska School Laws*, subdiv. 9 a, sec. 12.

<sup>25</sup> *Minnesota School Laws*, Title XXII, sec. 266; *Session Laws of 1899*, chap. 101, sec. 4.

<sup>26</sup> *California Political Code*, sec. 1775, div. 3.

<sup>27</sup> *Nevada School Laws*, 1905 edition, p. 27, sec. 7.

<sup>28</sup> *Illinois School Law*, Art. VII, sec. 3.

<sup>29</sup> *Missouri Revised Statutes of 1899*, sec. 9959, as amended by *Session Laws of 1903*.

<sup>30</sup> See footnote 25, Chapter II.

<sup>31</sup> The holder must attend at least two-thirds of each county teachers' institute, and also a summer normal institute each alternate summer to be exempt from re-examination.—*Texas School Law*, 1905 edition, p. 31, sec. 92.

<sup>32</sup> *Indiana Session Laws of 1903*, p. 291, sec. 2.

case of physical disability, properly certified by a reputable physician, then such exemption shall cease.

In California, to cite another example, the law provides :

When the holder of any certificate or state diploma shall have taught successfully in the same county, or city and county, for five years, the board of education of such county, or city and county, may grant a permanent certificate of the kind and grade of the class in which said applicant has been teaching, valid in the county, or city and county, in which issued, during the life of the holder, or until revoked . . . and provided, that a certificate when renewed a second time, or any time thereafter, shall become by such renewal a permanent certificate.<sup>33</sup>

In a majority of states there seems to be an evident intention to free the successful teacher from the necessity of frequent re-examination. This is certainly a desirable tendency, especially as it relates to the renewal of those higher grades of certificates which are based on further evidence of good education and professional success. It is well to refuse to renew the third-grade certificate, based on an examination on the "common-school branches" only, good for but one year, and strictly limited to the county where granted. It would be well indeed if all such low-grade certificates were not renewable at all, even by a new examination, and not only in the county where first issued, but anywhere in the state as well. The second-grade certificate may perhaps be renewable without examination, depending somewhat upon local requirements and circumstances, though it would be best in most cases to limit very closely the number of such renewals. The first-grade certificate though, if it has been granted on the basis of any advanced educational standards, ought to be renewable without examination on the submission of evidence of professional success and growth, and successful teachers holding the highest certificates ought not to be required to present themselves for re-examination, so long as they continue to teach successfully.

It is in our inability to determine at all accurately those important elements which we call professional success and professional growth, however, that the weakness of our present system of county supervision is at once evident. In most of the states our county supervision is clerical rather than supervisory in any broad educa-

<sup>33</sup> *California Political Code*, sec. 1775, div. 4.

tional sense, and in few counties in any state is there any adequate professional supervision. The usual annual or semiannual visit of the county superintendent to the schools is of course worth something, and is often worth much; but it is of little value compared with what we need and might have if county supervision were opened up as a career for which a man might be warranted in making special preparation, and which he might hope to enter wholly on a basis of merit. Once do away with nomination and election by political parties, with the accompanying local residence, political availability, and, too often, past or expected future party service, and institute in its place an adequate system of professional supervision for our county schools, as we have done in large part for our city schools and high schools, with an equal freedom in the selection of superintendents and deputies, and then associate the certificating and supervisory functions, and the way is at once open for a marked improvement in the certification of teachers and the renewal of certificates by taking into consideration the professional growth and success of the applicant as well as the percentages made in a set examination.

Indiana is one of the very few states which have made any effort at all in this direction, and the system as worked out there, though the supervisory oversight is largely lacking, is perhaps the best plan we have as yet evolved. In granting certificates, county superintendents are authorized to "take into consideration fitness to perform the services required,"<sup>34</sup> and for those who have had teaching experience shall include, as part of the examination, the teacher's "success grades" as determined by the superintendent under whom the teacher has last taught. The law and accompanying regulations<sup>35</sup> make detailed provisions for the determination and acceptance of such grades.

Such a test, while decidedly inferior to that used by a superintendent or a supervisory principal in a city, is nevertheless an important element to include in certificating teachers in counties where the supervisory visits are of necessity short and infrequent, and the personal supervision inadequate.

<sup>34</sup> *School Law of Indiana*, 1903 edition, p. 75, sec. 81. The success items and their relative values are given there in full.

<sup>35</sup> Indiana: *Session Laws of 1903*, p. 291; act approved March 9, 1903; *School Laws of Indiana*, 1903 edition, secs. 89, 90 91.



## CHAPTER V

### STATE SYSTEMS OF CERTIFICATION

In addition to the local or county systems of certification, almost all the states have instituted some form of state certification as well. In a few states the state examination system has completely supplanted the local systems, and all teachers in the state are required to pass the state examinations and to hold certificates issued by the state. In a few others all questions are prepared and all examination papers are graded by the state, but the certificates to teach are issued by the county superintendents, and are limited in validity to the county where the examination was taken and the certificate issued. In such states the evolution of a centralized state system of certification is in process of accomplishment, but is as yet incomplete. In most of the states, however, the state system has either been superimposed from above to correct abuses in the local systems and to provide for a broader system of certification than that then in force, or it has been established to provide for higher and professional state certificates as distinguished from the county or local certificates, and without superseding the latter. In a few states the state examination system exists in somewhat co-ordinate relations with the local certifying system.

#### I. STATE SYSTEMS SUPERSEDING LOCAL SYSTEMS

Arizona and Alabama are good examples of the first type—that of a state system which has completely superseded and supplanted the local systems.

In Arizona<sup>1</sup> all examination questions are prepared by the Territorial Board of Examiners and forwarded to the county superintendents for use in the quarterly examinations. This official conducts the examinations and forwards the papers, unmarked, to the board for marking. Those who pass are granted territorial certificates of either first or second grade, valid anywhere in the territory.

<sup>1</sup> *Arizona Statutes*, Title 19, chap. 2, sec. 9, and chap. 12, secs. 106, 107.

Alabama, by a recent law,<sup>2</sup> has established a most elaborate and detailed state examination system. A state board of examiners has been constituted which prepares all questions for the examination of teachers throughout the state. Two regular examinations are to be held each year, and on the same days throughout the state. Special examinations may be given in Montgomery and at the normal schools only. All teachers, not teaching in cities of two thousand or more inhabitants, are required to take this examination, even graduates of the Alabama normal schools not being exempt. A fee of from one to three dollars must be paid by every applicant, varying with the grade of certificate desired. The members of the state board of examiners are each to be paid "five dollars per day, including Sundays, for the time they are engaged in conducting the examinations." Certificates are issued by the secretary of the state board of examiners to those who pass, and these certificates "entitle the holder to teach in the public schools of any county in this state for the following periods of time: a third-grade certificate, two years; a second-grade certificate, four years; and a first-grade certificate, six years."<sup>3</sup> No teacher shall be granted a second-grade certificate more than twice,<sup>4</sup> and when a teacher has taught ten years on a first-grade certificate, it may become a life certificate."<sup>5</sup>

These two states are examples of a thoroughly developed state examination system. The state here controls all certification entirely and grants certificates good in any school in the state. Similar conditions exist in West Virginia, the certificates granted on the state examination being valid anywhere in the state.

There is much to be said for such a uniform state certifying system, though there is a strong tendency in all such systems to go to an extreme, and in the Alabama plan extremes are very evident. No recognition, for example, is given to normal training, to diplomas of any kind, or to certificates obtained in any other state. The only concession is that made to teachers in cities of two thousand inhabitants or over, which have the right by charter to examine their own teachers. In West Virginia similar extremes are evident, the law providing that "no college diploma or certificate of recommenda-

<sup>2</sup> "An Act to establish a uniform system for the examination and licensing of teachers for public schools;" approved February 10, 1899.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, sec. 15.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, sec. 16.

<sup>5</sup> *Ibid.*, sec. 17.

tion from the president or faculty of any college, or normal school, or academy, shall be taken to supersede the necessity of examination by the board of examiners."<sup>6</sup>

In view of the general unreliability of a mere examination as a test of proficiency for teaching, and the great desirability of establishing some standards of general education for prospective teachers, the undesirability of such limitations and restrictions as those imposed in Alabama and West Virginia is very evident. The general validity of certificates throughout the state, however, is a meritorious feature of the plan.

South Dakota is an example of a centralized state system in process of evolution, though the evolution is not as yet complete. The law makes it the duty of the state superintendent of public instruction "to prepare all questions for the examination of teachers by the county superintendents, and no county superintendent shall examine teachers with questions not so furnished."<sup>7</sup> The questions are to be sent to the county superintendents, who shall give two examinations each year, "at times uniform throughout the state,"<sup>8</sup> and shall forward the answer-papers, unmarked, to the state superintendent of public instruction. After grading the same, he "shall send to each county superintendent in the state a list of persons receiving first- and second-grade certificates."<sup>9</sup> First-grade certificates are valid for three years in any county in the state, and second-grade certificates are valid for two years in the county in which the examinations were held.<sup>9</sup> The state also grants, on examination, a state certificate good for five years, valid in any county, city, or town in the state.<sup>10</sup>

Nebraska and North Dakota have systems practically similar to that of South Dakota, except that the county certificates of all classes are limited in validity to the county where issued, which is a step farther removed than South Dakota from the centralized state system. That these states represent very imperfectly evolved state certificating systems is shown by the very anomalous condition whereby the questions used are prepared by the state and are uniform throughout the state, and the markings of the papers

<sup>6</sup> *School Law of West Virginia*, 1903 edition, sec. 29, div. 2.

<sup>7</sup> South Dakota: *Revised Code of 1903*, sec. 2278.

<sup>8</sup> *Ibid.*, sec. 2295.

<sup>9</sup> *Ibid.*, sec. 2294.

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, sec. 2286.

are also made by the state authorities, but the certificates are issued by the county superintendents on instructions from the state superintendent, and are limited in validity to the county where the examination happened to be taken—a purely adventitious circumstance which has nothing whatever to do with the nature of the test, and which presumably has nothing to do with the marking of the results.

The only difference between the examination system in these two states and the county examination system as found in such states as Illinois and Kentucky is that the state here prepares the questions and marks all the papers, while in Illinois and Kentucky the questions are prepared and the markings are made by the local authorities.

Indiana and Texas are even farther removed, being representatives of a state certifying system in the very beginnings of its evolution. In Indiana the use of uniform examination questions furnished by the state board of education, which was for a long time optional with county authorities, has recently been made obligatory, and a recent act of the legislature<sup>11</sup> has further extended the state system by giving to all applicants for a teacher's certificate "the right to elect to have their manuscripts sent to the state superintendent of public instruction for examination instead of being graded by the county superintendent." If the state superintendent approves of the papers submitted, he issues to the candidate a license which is not limited to any particular county, but which must be taken as qualifying the person to whom granted, so long as in force, to teach anywhere within the state, if of the proper grade for the school for which he may be employed. The examination subjects are the common-school subjects, and, if the applicant passes, he may receive a twelve, twenty-four, or thirty-six months' license valid throughout the state. By passing an examination in certain additional subjects he may receive a sixty-months' high-school license, valid in any non-commissioned high school in the state.

The Texas law<sup>12</sup> is almost identical. Any applicant for the three upper grades of county certificates may request that his papers be sent to the state board of examiners for examination, and they,

<sup>11</sup> *Acts of 1899*, p. 488; approved March 6, 1899.

<sup>12</sup> Texas: *Acts of the Twenty-ninth Legislature*, chap. 124, secs. 111-13.

"if they believe that the papers are fairly and accurately graded," shall so report to the state superintendent of public instruction, and he shall take up the county certificate previously issued on the examination and "issue in lieu thereof another certificate of equal rank, valid in all the counties of the state."<sup>13</sup> In both of these states this state general certificate plan exists in co-ordinate relations with the local county examination systems.

Connecticut is a good example of a state system which has been superimposed from above to correct abuses in the local certifying systems and to provide for a broader system of certification than that provided by the local town committee systems. Table II on page 15 shows the development of this system, and indicates how generally acceptable it has been to the teachers of the state.

## II. STATE SYSTEMS FOR HIGHER CERTIFICATION

About three-fourths of the states of the Union provide some form of a state system of examination and certification, organized for the purpose of granting professional and life-certificates to experienced and successful teachers. The local certifying system here continues its local work, the state system confining its work to the granting of higher certificates to those who have served a preliminary apprenticeship under the local system.<sup>14</sup>

The theory underlying such a higher certifying system is that of rewarding successful teaching experience and professional effort by a certificate of a distinctly professional character. The Oregon law, for example, provides<sup>15</sup> that such certificates shall be granted only to those found "to possess a good moral character, thorough scholarship, and successful experience in teaching." In Minnesota the law<sup>16</sup> provides that "permanent teachers of high character and broad scholarship, and who have had a successful experience, may, upon examination," be granted professional state certificates.

In nearly all of the states where such certificates are granted they are regarded as of a higher order than the ordinary county

<sup>13</sup> *Ibid.*, sec. 113.

<sup>14</sup> In eleven states one finds no mention of life-diplomas in the statutes.

<sup>15</sup> *Oregon Code*, sec. 3348.

<sup>16</sup> *Minnesota Statutes*, sec. 3749, as amended by the laws of 1901, chap. 367, sec. 1.

certificate. In many states practical experience in teaching is a prerequisite to the granting of state certificates or diplomas, the amount of such experience required varying greatly in the different states, from a maximum of ten years in Alabama to a minimum of eight months in Maine. It also varies with the class of certificates desired, usually being more for a life-diploma than for a limited state certificate. All the states require that at least part of the experience shall have been attained within the state, and a few go to the extreme of requiring that it all shall have been so attained. In a few states such certificates are granted on the basis of mere service alone and require no additional evidence of academic or professional growth. Sixty or seventy months of teaching as the only prerequisite to receiving a higher state certificate is a very unsatisfactory requirement, as the teaching experience, under our very inadequate system of rural and town supervision, may have been good, bad, or indifferent, and may represent little or no real professional growth. This is especially the case where the entire teaching experience has been secured in somewhat isolated positions, or on certificates involving a knowledge of only the common-school branches. Under such a system life-diplomas come to be held by all who have taught the requisite number of months, and they cease to be a distinctive honor to the holder. They are granted to all who keep alive and hold on to a teaching job, and are naturally regarded with suspicion by superintendents. In the states where these conditions prevail a radical reform is needed.

In most of our states two grades of state certificates are granted. A few states grant more than two grades, and the nomenclature is not the same in all. Disregarding minor differences and variations, we may classify the two grades of state certificates as Professional Certificates and as Life-Diplomas. The latter should be the culmination of a teacher's certifying career. To obtain either of these certificates most of the states require an examination in professional knowledge and in advanced academic studies, in addition to evidence of successful teaching experience. Some such requirements ought to prevail in all states granting such higher professional certificates.

The educational requirements vary greatly in the different states. In some it is possible to obtain the highest state certificate with

only a common-school education, and in others enough additional subjects are required in passing from the lowest to the highest to require a full high-school education or its equivalent from the applicant. The following tables show, for forty states, the number and the branches required in each for a state certificate or diploma of the highest grade. In most states this is the State Life-Diploma, though in eleven states the statutes make no mention of such a document. As in the tables in the previous chapter, where the possession of a certificate of lower grade is accepted for the subjects covered or is a prerequisite for obtaining such a state certificate, the subjects required for such a certificate have been included. The tables, therefore, represent the total number of subjects in which the applicant must be examined, during his professional career, in order to obtain the highest certificate issued by the state. Such a method of comparison is necessary in order to make any accurate comparison of the educational requirements in the various states, and to arrive at any idea as to the scholastic attainments which constitute the educational ideals, as expressed in legislation, of the different states. The difficulty of absolutely determining the number of subjects in which applicants are required to be examined in some of the states, on account of options allowed both to the applicant and the board of examiners, has caused the omission of certain states from the tables. Forty states and territories have been tabulated.

TABLE IV

NUMBER OF SUBJECTS REQUIRED FOR THE HIGHEST CERTIFICATE IN FORTY STATES

8 subjects	1 state	22 subjects	4 state
11	1	23	1
12	3	24	2
13	3	25	2
15	3	26	3
16	4	28	1
17	1	29	1
18	1	30	1
19	2	32	2
20	2	34	1
21	1		

Mean number of subjects required, 19.

Tabulating the subjects required in the different states, we get the next table, which shows the relative frequency of the different subjects in the requirements for state certificates in the different states:

TABLE V

EXAMINATION REQUIREMENTS FOR THE HIGHEST STATE TEACHER'S CERTIFICATE  
BY GROUPS OF SUBJECTS

Number of states tabulated . . . . .	40
Number of states specifically requiring	
1. The common-school staples:	
Reading . . . . .	40
Arithmetic . . . . .	40
Physiology and hygiene . . . . .	40
Grammar . . . . .	40
Geography . . . . .	39
Orthography . . . . .	38
United States history . . . . .	38
Civics . . . . .	38
Writing . . . . .	34
2. Supplemental common-school subjects:	
Composition . . . . .	17
Bookkeeping . . . . .	14
Drawing . . . . .	10
State history . . . . .	7
Agriculture . . . . .	5
Mental arithmetic . . . . .	4
Music . . . . .	4
Nature-study . . . . .	1
Current events . . . . .	1
Manual training . . . . .	1
Higher arithmetic . . . . .	1
3. High-school subjects:	
Algebra . . . . .	33
Geometry . . . . .	31
Physics . . . . .	28
Literature . . . . .	25
General history . . . . .	24
Botany . . . . .	22
Rhetoric . . . . .	20
Physical geography . . . . .	16
Zoölogy . . . . .	13
Geology . . . . .	11
Chemistry . . . . .	10
Latin . . . . .	8
Trigonometry . . . . .	7
Astronomy . . . . .	5
English history . . . . .	1
German . . . . .	1



TABLE V—*Continued*

4. Pedagogical subjects:	
Theory and art of teaching .....	27
Psychology .....	20
School law .....	17
History of education .....	17
Pedagogy .....	13
Methods .....	9
School management .....	9
Philosophy of education .....	5
Science of education .....	2
Child-study .....	1
School systems of Europe and America .....	1
Miscellaneous:	
Thesis .....	7
Intellectual philosophy .....	2
Elocution .....	2
Logic .....	1
Moral philosophy .....	1

A glance at the above table shows at once what is common in requirements and what is exceptional. The subjects of group 1 are naturally common to all, as they are required of the applicant when he passes his first examination and obtains his first teaching certificate. Composition and bookkeeping are the common subjects of group 2, though required in less than half the states. Drawing and music, two far more fundamental subjects, are required in but 25 per cent. and 10 per cent. of the states respectively. Of the high-school subjects of group 3, there is a somewhat common agreement on algebra, geometry, physics, literature, and general history, from 60 to 80 per cent. of the states requiring these subjects. A certain emphasis is also placed on the other sciences, particularly the biological sciences, but the languages are in little favor. In the pedagogical group there seems to be a somewhat general agreement on the requirement of some knowledge of pedagogy, or the theory and art of teaching, but, aside from this single educational topic, but little is required. Educational psychology is required in but half of the states, and a knowledge of the school law of the state, or of the history of education either in general or in the state, is required in but 42 per cent. of the states. But one state in the entire forty, Indiana, requires any comparative knowledge of schools

of any other country than our own, and probably this is equally true if applied to the school systems of any other state than the one in which the candidate teaches. One subject in the miscellaneous group, that of thesis, required in seven states, is one of much more importance than is given it, and one capable of much usefulness in testing a candidate for a higher state certificate. In Germany it is used extensively in the examination of teachers, and with very good results. The ability to hunt up and organize information on an educational question ought to be expected of anyone worthy of the higher state certificates.

Examined critically, these requirements for the highest state certificates are low, even under the best conditions, and the standards in many of the states are very low indeed. A state professional certificate or life-diploma ought to represent, not only a high degree of professional study and success, but also some substantial evidence of broad general education and thinking power. It ought never to be given on the basis of a certain number of years of teaching and a recommendation by some local authority. While most of the states require an examination in additional subjects, in but a very few states is there any specific requirement made as to the nature or amount of the education prerequisite for admission to the examination for these highest certificates, the examinations being thrown open to anyone who can pass them.

In general, just as was the case with local county certification, there is no distinction in state certificates between certificates for the elementary school and those for high-school work, a state certificate generally being good in any kind of school. Less than one-fifth of the states make any distinction whatever between these certificates.

All plans for higher state certification should have one main purpose—that of granting certificates of general validity to those teachers whose general education, professional success, and high personal character stamp them as especially well educated and successful members of the teaching profession. To do this is particularly desirable. Those who have proved their capacity as teachers, and who can offer proof as to character, scholarship, and pedagogic insight, ought to be singled out and given professional or life-certificates, valid anywhere in the state for the kind of work their holders

are prepared to do. So long as these persons continue to teach, there ought to be no question as to certificates, and large freedom of movement ought to be allowed to them. In states where the higher professional and life-diplomas are led up to by a graded system of certificates, each presupposing added knowledge and professional growth, and where the granting of them involves a searching professional examination rather than an academic one, there is little to lose and much to gain from the issuance and general recognition of such certificates and diplomas. In so far as these certificates and diplomas are based on high requirements, they should be recognized between states, so that the successful and thoroughly professional teacher may have as large freedom of movement as possible.

On the other hand, if these higher certificates and life-diplomas are granted on the basis of mere teaching service, and perhaps a more or less formal recommendation, they may not, and probably will not, designate the professionally competent, and any general recognition of such certificates is very inadvisable. There are states in which the possession of a life-diploma is a distinct honor and marks the holder as one of the most capable and progressive teachers in the locality; and there are other states where its possession is no honor at all, and where discriminating boards of education look upon an applicant with certain amount of merited suspicion when he heralds the fact that he holds a life-diploma. It may merely signify that he has taught in some unprogressive and indiscriminating locality the requisite number of months.

A life-diploma, too, ought not to be valid for life, if the applicant leaves the teaching profession. A life-diploma ought to be intended for the professional teacher, the man or woman who has made education a profession and a life-career, and it should not be possible for the non-professional teacher to obtain it and then lay it away as a rainy-day safe-guard. Some of the most troublesome applicants with which boards of education or superintendents have to deal are the holders of life-diplomas who have been out of teaching for years, but who, in the press of hard times, want a position in the schools and use their influence to secure it. As a means of eliminating this class of non-professional teachers, a few states have inserted in their laws what seems to the writer to be a very wise

provision;<sup>17</sup> viz, that the life-diploma shall lapse if the applicant fails at any time to teach or engage in some form of educational work, without a valid excuse, for a certain number of years.

<sup>17</sup> "A state diploma shall be good in all schools throughout the state, until revoked by the superintendent of public instruction, or until the holder shall fail for two successive years to be engaged in active school work."—Kentucky: *Acts of 1894; School Law*, sec. 132.

"Provided, that any teacher holding a life-certificate shall forfeit the same by leaving off the business of teaching for five consecutive years."—Alabama: "An Act to establish a uniform system for the examination and licensing of teachers of the public schools;" approved February 10, 1899; sec. 17.

"No professional diploma or certificate shall be in force if the holder allow a space of five years to elapse without following some educational pursuit."—*Utah Revised Statutes*, sec. 1767, div 4.

"No life-certificate shall be in force after its holder shall permit a space of three years to lapse without following some educational pursuit, unless said certificate shall be indorsed by the state superintendent."—Minnesota: *Acts of 1901*, chap. 367, sec. 1.

The Nebraska law contains a provision almost identical with that of Minnesota.—*School Laws of Nebraska*, as amended to 1905, subdiv. 9 a, sec. 3, div. 1.

"If the holder of a professional (life-) certificate shall at any time cease to teach or be engaged in other educational work for a period of five years, such certificate shall lapse, and the lapse, with date and cause, shall be made a matter of record in the office of the state superintendent of public instruction. Such certificate, however, may be reinstated under such rules as may be prescribed by the superintendent of public instruction."—North Dakota: *Revised Political Code of 1899*, chap. 9, Art. IX, sec. 737, as amended by subsequent acts.

## CHAPTER VI

### SPECIAL FORMS OF CERTIFICATES

So far in the consideration of the question of certification we have dealt with teachers' certificates, merely as such, and without distinction except as to grades. This has been done for the reason that in almost all of our states a certificate of any of the regular grades is valid for teaching anywhere in the school system. In this chapter we wish to consider certain special forms of certificates, granted by a few states, to teach in certain types of schools or for instruction in certain special forms of school work, viz., high-school certificates, kindergarten certificates, and special certificates.

#### I. HIGH-SCHOOL CERTIFICATES

In almost all of our states a teacher's certificate of any grade is good to teach in any part of the school system in which the teacher may be able to secure employment. Cases not infrequently happen of a teacher teaching in a high school when the teacher herself has not had more than a year or two of high-school work. The writer has personally come in contact with three such cases. To be employed as a teacher in a high school when one has never had more education than that represented by a four-year high-school course is also not uncommon. With the great increase in the number who go to college, and the general community insistence on having a corps of trained teachers for a high school, the number of such poorly educated secondary-school teachers is naturally growing less each year. In almost all of our states, however, the change is taking place in response to community sentiment rather than in response to educational legislation, and the attitude of almost all of our states, as expressed in legislation, is far from being in accord with the best thought of the times.

It may be laid down as a safe standard that a teacher is not prepared to teach in a high school until after he has had some advanced training beyond that given in the high schools or normal schools of the state. The high school is the place for bringing the student into contact with new methods of instruction and new ways of

thinking as well as new subject-matter. Much of the work of the high school, with our elective courses, many subjects of instruction, and advanced instruction along certain lines, is fully as advanced as that done in the first year of the college course. Unless the teacher has come in contact with men who are masters of such subjects, and has learned something of the master's method of dealing with the great truths that lie in his field, he is not likely to carry much of a message to the young people who come under his direction in the secondary school. Just as it is desirable that the teacher in the elementary school shall have had some high-school training to give her additional knowledge and breadth of view and culture, so that she may make her teaching broader than the mere course of study or the textbooks she uses, so it is equally desirable that the high-school teacher should be expected to know more than what is taught in the high school, to have come in contact with men of broader and more extensive learning, and to have caught something of that method—which, after all, is nothing more than organized common-sense—which men of larger scholarship apply to the solution of difficult problems. This practically demands that the teachers of our high schools be required to be college graduates, or to have had an equivalent education. This fundamental requirement was clearly set forth by the Committee on College Entrance Requirements<sup>1</sup> in its report made to the National Educational Association, in 1899, and is certain ultimately to find general acceptance.

Such a requirement obviously cannot be enforced by means of a written examination. To examine the candidate on the subjects studied in the university would be not only almost impossible, but ridiculous as well. To attempt to enforce it by an examination given on the subjects to be taught in the high school will also fail, for the reason that the high-school graduate, fresh from his studies, can almost always pass the examinations more easily and with better grades than the college graduate.<sup>2</sup> The only safe way is to impose

<sup>1</sup> See *Proceedings of National Educational Association*, 1899, p. 658.

<sup>2</sup> This was clearly the experience of California. Under the old system of examinations for high-school certificates, the candidate fresh from the high school could do better than the college graduate. There was much variation in results according to the emphasis placed on the examinations by the county

a definite educational requirement, such as graduation from a college of recognized rank, as a prerequisite to the granting of such a certificate to teach. For the strictly pedagogical part of the preparation either certain work and courses in education should be required to be taken as part of the college course, or a special examination on educational topics alone ought to be provided.

A few of our states have passed through the earlier stages of a series of grades of general certificates, and have evolved a high-school certificate, based upon certain definite educational requirements. California is a good case in point. In the earlier period of its history this state issued three grades of teachers' certificates. Later a distinct high-school certificate was evolved, but it was granted only on the basis of a successful examination before a county board of education. Still later, in 1893, the law<sup>3</sup> was so amended that a graduate of the University of California, or any other institution recognized as equivalent in rank, who had complied with certain subject-matter and professional requirements, might be given a recommendation by the faculty of such institution, and this recommendation must be recognized by all county boards as valid for a high-school certificate. This placed the educational requirement on a par with the examination, the two methods existing for a time side by side. In 1901 the county examinations for the high-school certificate were entirely abolished,<sup>4</sup> and in 1905 the educational requirement was raised to a year of graduate study in addition to a full college course.<sup>5</sup>

In Indiana the state board of education has also provided within recent years for an examination for high-school certificates,<sup>6</sup> and by a series of decisions it has compelled all teachers to stand an examination in the subjects which they expect to teach in the

boards of education, but in some counties almost all of the high-school teachers were non-university material. This fact, coupled with the confessed inability of many of the county boards properly to conduct such an examination, and the rapidly increasing number of university graduates, led to the abolition of the county examination entirely in 1901.

<sup>3</sup> California: *Political Code*, sec. 1521, 2 a.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, revision of sec. 1772, *Session Laws of 1901*.

<sup>5</sup> *Bulletins* 86 and 99, California State Department of Education, 1906.

<sup>6</sup> See details of examinations, *School Law of Indiana*, 1903 edition, pp. 39, 40.

schools.<sup>7</sup> All, however, is based on a written examination without the requirement of any definite educational preparation.

These two states, given as examples, stand nearly alone in the matter of definite higher requirements for high-school teaching. California occupies the most advanced position in the matter of any state in the Union. In a number of other states the diplomas of local universities are recognized for certificates to teach, but such recognition does not involve any exclusive requirement of such diplomas for high-school instruction. In most of our states the only legal requirement for instruction in a high school is one of the regular grades of county certificates.

The idea underlying the California position, that of requiring a separate certificate for high-school work and of making a college education a prerequisite for it, is so thoroughly sound that the writer predicts that it will ultimately be accepted generally throughout the United States. In many of our states the enforcement of such a requirement would not be possible at present, but in almost every northern and western state a movement looking in that direction is possible now. The first step is the definite recognition of high-school work as a field demanding special and additional preparation, and the separation of high-school certificates from those of elementary schools, by the establishment of an educational requirement to supplement an examination. In view of the enrichment taking place in the seventh and eighth grades, and the probability of departmental work and a six-year high school coming to be recognized features of our educational system, very sharp lines of demarkation should not be drawn. The high-school certificate ought also to be valid to teach in at least the seventh and eighth years of graded city systems. The second step in the process is the recognition of college diplomas and other evidences of preparation as the full equivalent of the subject-matter examination; and the third and last step is the entire elimination of the subject-matter examination and the requirement of the college diploma in its stead.

## II. KINDERGARTEN CERTIFICATES

What has been said with reference to high-school certificates applies with equal force to kindergarten certificates. The work

<sup>7</sup> See decisions in *School Law of Indiana*, 1903 edition, decision 6, p. 77, and decisions 29 and 30, p. 80.



of the kindergarten is special and requires special training. A written examination cannot test the teaching ability of the prospective kindergarten teacher. The work, too, demands broad sympathies and culture, and these are generally a product of a somewhat generous education. A certificate of graduation from a reputable kindergarten training-school, or from the kindergarten department of a state normal school, where a good general education has been presupposed for admission, is about the only satisfactory test which can be imposed. The prerequisite general education ought not to be less than a high-school education. This standard has been reached by a number of cities, and by California<sup>8</sup> as a state.

### III. SPECIAL CERTIFICATES

By these are meant special certificates to teach special subjects, such as music, drawing, physical training, etc., and not the temporary certificates mentioned in a previous chapter. The intent of all special certification should be to recognize extensive technical or special training, and along lines different from the ordinary lines of school work, and the practice should not extend to the granting of special certificates to those who ought to but cannot secure regular certificates. There are few lines of work in which a special certificate should be granted. Drawing, music, physical training, domestic science, special instruction of defectives (deaf and blind), manual training, and certain forms of commercial, industrial, and technical work will about cover the field.

The danger of all such special certificates is that the holders, having entered the profession by an easier method, will represent a lower standard of general intelligence and culture than the other teachers of the school, and that the work of the teacher will be cast

<sup>8</sup> The law here provides that kindergarten-primary certificates may be granted "to the holders of diplomas of graduation from the kindergarten department of any state normal school of this state," or "to holders of credentials, showing that the applicant has had professional kindergarten training in an institution approved by the state board of education, and also general education equivalent to the requirements for graduation from the kindergarten department of a California state normal school." As all California state normal schools require a high-school education for admission and then offer a two-year course, the requirement of a high-school education and kindergarten training in an approved school in addition is a general state requirement.—California: *Political Code*, sec. 1775, subdiv. 1 c.

into more or less disrepute in consequence. This has certainly been the case altogether too often with the specially certificated teacher of penmanship in our elementary schools, the teacher of bookkeeping in our commercial courses, and the teacher of German, French, and Spanish in our high schools. By far the safest way, where the wage standard of a state will permit, is to insist upon a minimum of general education for all such special teachers, and to limit the granting of special certificates as closely as may be done. It must be recognized that drawing, music, and some forms of industrial and technical work require long and special training, and that an insistence on the regular academic standards would not be possible; but the teacher of the modern languages is essentially a teacher of culture and the history of culture, and an insistence upon the regular academic standards is in the line of better education. The provision of the California law with reference to special certificates seems to the writer to be especially meritorious.<sup>9</sup>

<sup>9</sup> "Special certificates may be granted to those who, by examination or any credentials, or by both, shall satisfy the board of their special fitness to teach one or more of the particular studies for which special certificates may be granted, and who shall satisfy the board of their proficiency in English grammar, orthography, defining, and methods of teaching. No special certificate shall be granted to teach, in any school, studies other than drawing, music, physical culture, and commercial, industrial, and technical work."

## CHAPTER VII

### SUPERVISORY CERTIFICATES

A tabulation of conditions in the various states shows that in fifteen of our states the certification of teachers is almost wholly in the hands of the county superintendent alone; in fifteen other states the certification of teachers is controlled by a county board of education or examiners, of which the county superintendent is a member in all but one state; and in the remaining states the certifying authority is the state, the town, or some combination of the state and the locality.

Of the fifteen states in which the county superintendent (or an equivalent official) has control of the certification of teachers, we find that in four<sup>1</sup> no educational or professional qualifications have been established for the office, while in the other eleven some requirements for the county superintendency are laid down in the laws of the state. In Arkansas<sup>2</sup> and Iowa<sup>3</sup> the possession of a live first-grade certificate is made a prerequisite to taking the office. In Montana<sup>4</sup> the county superintendent, in addition, must be a citizen and a resident of the state and county, and have had twelve months of experience as a teacher in the schools of the state. In Idaho<sup>5</sup> a first-grade teacher's certificate with one year of teaching experience on it, and a total of not less than two years' experience in the state, are required. In North Carolina<sup>6</sup> the county superintendent must be "a practical teacher, or who shall have had at least two years' experience in teaching school, and who also shall be a man of liberal education." In Pennsylvania<sup>7</sup> the county

<sup>1</sup> Colorado, Illinois, Minnesota, and Wyoming.

<sup>2</sup> *Arkansas Statutes*, sec. 7562.

<sup>3</sup> *Iowa Code*, sec. 2734, as amended by the *Session Laws of 1898*, chap. 85.

<sup>4</sup> *Montana Statutes*, Title III, chap vi, Art. II. sec. 1744.

<sup>5</sup> *Idaho Political Code*, chap. 36, sec. 1019, as amended by the *Session Laws of 1903*, p. 284.

<sup>6</sup> *North Carolina Statutes*, revival of 1905, sec. 4135.

<sup>7</sup> *Pennsylvania School Laws*, sec. cclxix.

superintendent must hold a diploma from a college or normal school, a professional (first-grade) certificate issued by some local authority, or a certificate of competency issued by the state superintendent; and he must also have had successful experience in teaching. In Georgia<sup>8</sup> the county school commissioner must be examined by the president of the county board of education on questions furnished by the state school commissioners, before he can be elected. In Maryland<sup>9</sup> the state board of education examines candidates for the office of county examiner, and gives certificates of qualification.

In Wisconsin alone, of the first group of fifteen states, is there anything like an adequate educational and professional requirement made for the office of examiner and superintendent. In this state a definite county superintendent's certificate is provided for,<sup>10</sup> to be issued upon examination before the state board of examiners. The examination includes all the subjects for a first-grade certificate, and, in addition, "school law, and the organization, management, and supervision of district schools." The applicant also must be of good moral character, and have had not less than eight months' experience as a teacher in the public schools. The county superintendent is still nominated and elected along political lines, but must meet these requirements to qualify for the office.

Of the second group of fifteen states, where a county board of education or examiners examines the candidates for teachers' certificates, but few states distinctly and specifically require that the board, or any large proportion of it, shall possess any particular educational or professional qualifications. In California the county board of education, consisting of five members, one of whom is the county superintendent, must contain three persons holding grammar-grade (first-grade) teachers' certificates, and, if there is a high school in the county, one member must hold a high-school certificate.<sup>11</sup> Michigan also requires<sup>12</sup> that a member of the county board of examiners "shall hold, or shall have held, within three years next preceding his appointment, at least a second-grade cer-

<sup>8</sup> *School Laws of Georgia*, 1903 edition, Part IV, sec. 22, p. 18.

<sup>9</sup> *Maryland Code*, Art. LXXVII, chap. iii, sec. 14.

<sup>10</sup> *Wisconsin School Law*, 1905 edition, sec. 461, 1, p. 99.

<sup>11</sup> California: *Political Code*, sec. 1768, subdivs. 2 and 3.

<sup>12</sup> *General School Laws of Michigan*, 1903 edition, secs. 177 and 179.

tificate," and also have had nine months' experience as a teacher. The county school commissioner in Michigan must be a graduate of a college or normal school, or hold a state certificate or a county first-grade certificate. A few other states require the county superintendents to hold certificates to teach, and in many states where such a requirement is not expressly stated in the law it is enforced by public opinion. In a general way it may be said that educational opinion has crystallized on the idea that the certification of teachers should be in the hands of professional teachers instead of laymen, and that a county superintendent, or other certificating authority, should be possessed of at least the highest grade of certificate which is issued by him.

This is all very good as far as it goes, but it is entirely inadequate to meet the needs of present-day education. Such a system brings to the front only the old and successful practitioner, while what we need is the man who, in addition to successful practice, has secured a broad education and made a careful study of school administration and educational theory as well. There is no particular fault to be found with the present body of county superintendents as such. They are good enough in their way, and are the best the present system can produce. The trouble, however, is with the system. It produces the successful practitioner who has learned largely by experience and imitation, and not the educational leader who works, partly in the light of his past experience, but largely in the light of the best educational theory there is on the subject. Too often our superintendents work without any guiding theory of consequence, with the result that their educational work is traditional work and highly conservative, and their main services clerical rather than supervisory, in any broad educational sense of the term. Such work and conditions will not meet the needs of the future in a nation where the changes in the conditions of living, and the consequent modifications of an educational system to meet changed conditions, are taking place as rapidly as they are with us at present. Everywhere our rural schools are calling for leadership and close educational supervision of a new order; but little can be done to answer this call until some important changes are made in our methods of selecting supervisory officers, and the number of these is largely increased. In the judgment of the writer, two funda-

mental changes ought to be made in our method of selecting men for supervisory positions. Both are of fundamental importance. The first is the erection of distinctly higher educational and professional standard for supervisors; and the second is the elimination of the county superintendency from politics, making it an appointive office, with the selection made wholly on the basis of educational ability.

Wisconsin is an example of the first, and as such it stands almost alone among the states. The Wisconsin plan is capable of general and further application. A distinct supervisory certificate ought to be erected by each of our states, and the premium placed upon thorough preparation for educational leadership. The educational leader is the modern social engineer, and he must possess a broader training and be able to see farther than those he proposes to lead and direct. Such a certificate could not at first be required of all. Such an attempt would result either in failure or in very low standards. The standard for such a certificate should be made high; the desirability of holding such a certificate should be emphasized; if possible, a monetary premium should be placed on the possession of the same, and, after the number of such certificates has multiplied sufficiently, then require that, after a certain time, all new supervisors or superintendents must hold such certificates.

It must be kept clearly in mind that the real value of such a certificate will lie in the high standards required to secure it, and that broad and liberal training should be demanded as a prerequisite for educational leadership. A high-school education, or good normal-school training, or the possession of a first-grade certificate based upon an examination on some high-school subjects, is certainly a minimum in general education. In addition, there should be evidence of high character, and of particularly successful experience as a teacher for a reasonable length of time. All this is in the line of prerequisites, and these are as low as can be made with any safety. The candidate possessing these prerequisites should now be subjected to a purely professional examination in educational psychology, the theory of education, school administration, the school law of the state, and school hygiene; and the history of the educational system of the state could also be added with advantage. A still further test of the candidate's capacity could be made by

requiring him to prepare a thesis on some practical educational topic, as is done in Germany, giving him sufficient time and the use of a library. If the educational leader is to solve problems, he must know how to consult authorities, and select and organize the information he needs for his topic. The thesis is a splendid test of this particular kind of ability.

Keeping in mind the desirability of broad education for leadership, the above might well represent the requirements for a second-grade supervisory certificate. A first-grade certificate should be based on the possession of a college or university education, and similar evidence as to character and successful experience as a teacher. In place of the examination in educational subjects, a recommendation from the faculty, stating that the candidate had completed a required pedagogical course while in the institution, and which included the subjects of the examination, should be accepted for all except possibly the thesis. There might be a gain in still requiring this to be stimulated, with the other evidence, to the certifying authorities.

If the leading states of the North Atlantic, North Central, and Western groups were to provide for such supervisory certificates, making their use optional and giving them the validity, for any purpose, of first-grade teaching certificates, with full inter-county recognition for the second-grade and interstate recognition for the first-grade, the holders would soon make a place for themselves and demonstrate the wisdom of the certificate. In a short time, five to eight or ten years, it would be easily possible, in almost every state in the groups mentioned, to legislate that in the future no new county superintendent (or his equivalent) should be elected (or selected) who did not hold one of these certificates. In still a few years more it would be possible to abolish the lower-grade supervisory certificate entirely, thus securing as the educational leaders of our schools a group of college-trained special students of educational administration. The progress which we could make under such a system of leadership would be very much greater and much more rapid than we now secure.

It may perhaps be argued that under the present salary schedules for county supervision such standards would not be possible. This, however, as we said with reference to teachers' certificates, is a

question with which the educational men of the state need not concern themselves. The present salaries are in many cases high enough for the quality of the service secured. The thing for men in education to do is to demand proper standards, those which are right from an educational point of view, and then compel the taxpayers to provide adequate salaries to secure the class of men needed. We should not be afraid of a shortage in the crop. A shortage is usually a good thing. One main reason why the pay for teaching and supervision is so low today throughout the United States is that, with our very low standards of admission, the crop is always long.

The second important step, and one that ought to follow closely after the first, is the entire elimination of the superintendency from politics. There is the greatest need of such a reform. There is no more reason, educationally, why we should nominate a local Republican or local Democrat for county superintendent, and expect him to stump the county for election, than that we should nominate a Republican or a Democrat from among the voters of a city, and expect him to stump the city for election as a city superintendent, or a high-school principal, or a grammar-school principal. If it is right educationally to vote for one then it is right to vote for the others, and if it is wrong educationally to vote for one, then it is wrong to vote for the others. A county superintendent should be as much an expert educational officer as a city superintendent, a county horticulturalist, a county entomologist, or a county health officer; and the fact that this is not as thoroughly an established principle with the mass of educational men as it is with city superintendents and scientific men is due to the estimate we place upon the functions of the county superintendent. We look upon it as a clerical office, because the number of Kerns and Hyatts is so small that it is only once in a while that we produce, under our present successful practitioner system, a real educational leader.

That better and professional supervision for our rural schools is coming in the near future may be regarded as a certainty, and the position that the county superintendent will hold in the future will be determined by the attitude he assumes toward the two great and much-needed reforms indicated above. If he sees the educational importance of these and works toward their accomplishment, he



will come in time to occupy a position of dignity and importance in his county analogous to that which the city superintendent holds in the city, and his purely clerical work will be done for him by cheap clerks, as it is done for the city superintendents. If, on the contrary, he opposes these reforms from selfishness or from lack of appreciation of their deep significance, then we shall be forced to put a system of educational supervision in over him, reduce him to purely clerical functions, and put him on clerical pay. The future of county supervision will be settled within the next ten or fifteen years in most of our states, and we predict that it will be settled very much along these lines.

County and rural supervision is today a closed field. There is no way to enter it purely on the basis of merit. More, it is a closed field to every man not a resident of the particular county and more or less politically inclined. Political affiliations, political availability, place of residence, and often the political dominance of one party or the other in the county—considerations which have no more to do with a man's ability to be an educational leader of the schools of the county than the church he belongs to, the age of his wife, the name of his baby, or the size of shoes he wears—are considerations which, nevertheless, largely determine the selection of the county superintendent.

In the process of nomination and renomination many accidents happen. A successful superintendent may be sure of renomination, but fail through some eleventh-hour trade made on the floor of the convention. Still more often he fails because his renomination would destroy a good geographical distribution of the ticket as a whole. If renominated, he may be defeated at the polls because of a Roosevelt or a Bryan landslide which carries the other party into power all along the line. Or he may be defeated by a woman, put up by the opposite party purposely to defeat him, and who has sought the office as only a woman can. Perhaps he is defeated by some third-rate country schoolmaster, who puts up the plea that the county superintendent deals with the country schools, and that, therefore, he should come from the country rather than the town. These are not hypothetical cases. The writer knows of at least two actual cases to illustrate each. These considerations are not educational

ones, and education and politics cannot be mixed in any proportions whatsoever without harm to education.

Certain fundamental propositions must be laid down with reference to county school supervision, and these must be insisted upon with emphasis. In the first place, it should offer a career for which a good man would be warranted in making a careful educational and professional preparation. In the second place, a man should be able to enter the work purely on the basis of merit, and free from any unnecessary and irrelevant considerations. In the third place, the office in no sense exists to reward old and faithful teachers, and the position should never be awarded as a charity. In the fourth place, the educational functions of the position should be paramount, and the clerical and legal functions purely secondary. We tend to emphasize the county-office side of the position, and then to defend the bad features of the method of selection on this ground; but there is no argument here that cannot be made to apply with equal force to the work of a city superintendent. We cannot insist too strongly that the first business of the schools is the education of children, and that anything which fails to promote this to the maximum possible is to the extent that it fails a robbery of the child.

The supervision of instruction and the certification of teachers are correlative functions, and should be exercised by the same authority. The renewal of certificates should be based upon success as well as service. The determination of this success is at present difficult, because our county supervision is so thoroughly inadequate. But, as we pointed out at the close of chap. iv, the degree of success attained by a teacher is an important item which should be included in all future consideration of a teacher's application for either a renewal or a new certificate.

The present "closed shop" conditions in county supervision need to be changed. In any attempt to change them the most opposition will come, not from the politicians—for the office has but little patronage, and in making selections for this office the politicians often make mistakes which bring them much undesirable criticism—but from the conservative body of schoolmen themselves. If the schoolmen of a state could once fix their eyes on the horizon and agree on this reform, it could be accomplished tomorrow.

## CHAPTER VIII

### DEFECTS AND REMEDIES

In the study of present conditions, perhaps the two most significant weaknesses revealed in our systems of certification were the low standards and the great lack of uniformity. To raise and to standardize our certification requirements ought to be the keynotes of future progress.

The amount of common knowledge which we as a people have is increasing so rapidly, our elementary-school curriculum is being enriched so fast, and the general intelligence of our people is becoming of such a standard that the teacher with a meager intellectual equipment should no longer have a place in our educational system. Yet Table III in chap. iii shows clearly that, for the twenty-eight states tabulated, it is possible to secure a third-grade teacher's certificate in 90 per cent. of the number with no educational test beyond the common-school branches; and for the thirty-seven states tabulated it is possible to secure a first-grade certificate, in two-thirds of these states, without giving evidence of knowing anything about a single high-school subject except algebra, and in two-fifths of the states without knowing even this. These low-standard certificates are wholly out of place today and ought to be eliminated at the earliest possible moment.

The great diversity of our requirements and our unwillingness to recognize equivalents are two of our marked educational characteristics. So great is the diversity that a good teacher today is unnecessarily hampered in his ability to move about, not only from state to state, but also from county to county, and often from county to city or from one city to another. Many of these restrictions are not warranted by any educational standards, but are more of the nature of a protective tariff levied on foreign capacity and in favor of home production. This makes the local examination system, with its accompanying barriers, in the nature of a protected industry, and this is not in the interests of good education. The strict county system too often perpetuates the rule of the weak by

shielding them from the competition of the strong. All barriers to competency are wrong.

That these barriers exist has been pointed out frequently in previous chapters, and need only be summarized here. In fourteen states there is no admission to the teaching profession except on examination. In eleven of these states forty or more subjects are required to secure the highest certificate granted, and all must be secured by examination. In fourteen states no recognition is given to diplomas from normal schools or other institutions of learning within the state. The graduates of such institutions are placed on a par with the "graduates" of the country school. In nineteen states absolutely no recognition is given to any form of credential from another state. Only eleven states recognize normal-school diplomas from other states; seventeen recognize college or university diplomas from outside the state; and eighteen recognize a life-diploma or state professional certificate from elsewhere. In a number of our states there is no recognition of certificates from one county to another within the state. Many of these barriers are indefensible, while the defense of others can be eliminated with ease by raising and standardizing requirements.

The great diversity of our requirements may be seen from Table III in chap. iii, and Table V in chap. v. We ought to work toward greater uniformity by the establishment of educational prerequisites, common requirements or norms within subjects, options and equivalents as between subjects, and the entire abolition of certain other subjects from the list of tests. We need to do in the examinations for teachers' certificates what the colleges have done in the matter of entrance requirements—viz., unify as much as possible and then accept evidences of education, equivalent subjects, and equivalent certificates, so far as they go, leaving the candidate to supply the balance by an examination instead of requiring him to pass on the entire list. If this cannot be done by arrangements within states and between states, then we would better work for national uniformity by establishing a national examining and certifying board, after the plan of the College Entrance Examination Board, which will examine teachers, pass on credentials, and issue certificates of such a high standard that our states would be forced to accept them, just as the colleges have been forced to accept the certificates of the above board.

The low standards are also apparent in the requirements for life-certificates. This is evident from Table V, pp. 54, 55. While a state life-diploma ought to be of such a standard that it would be accepted willingly anywhere in the United States, many of the low-standard life-diplomas now granted certainly ought not to be recognized from state to state. A life-certificate, as we pointed out in pp. 54, 55, ought to be led up to by a series of graded certificates, each demanding higher and higher standards; and the state life-certificate, the culmination of a teacher's certificating career, should be given only to those whose education and professional standing single them out as the state's most capable teachers. In a number of our states, on the contrary, a life-diploma is obtainable on the single basis of a definite number of months of teaching, and hence involves no educational standards of any consequence and really stands for nothing.

Each state must, of course, be allowed to set its own standards, and it cannot be expected to accept certificates or diplomas from states having a distinctly lower standard. This should be recognized and accepted, and reciprocity should not be expected. Instead of being "uppish" about it and striking back by way of retaliation, as certain states do because their credentials are not accredited by some more progressive state, they should on the contrary welcome a teacher from such a state because of his better training and what he may bring.

It is possible, though, for most of our states to determine the value of credentials from elsewhere, and to recognize them as far as they apply. The work of California in this respect is most commendable. This state has a published list of accredited universities and normal schools throughout the United States and Canada, and a list of accredited state diplomas. Anyone possessing any of these credentials may be certificated in any county in the state, without examination, and on the same terms as the holders of similar local documents. A fundamental principle in California is that the certification door should always be open for competency, from whatever quarter it may come.

In almost every state, too, these low-standard certificates are good for teaching in any part of the school system in which the holders can secure employment. This should not be allowed to

continue, but a separate high-school certificate should be erected for high-school work, as outlined in chap. vi. Teachers in all branches of the service should be required to know more than they are expected to teach, and the importance of this for high-school teachers cannot be overemphasized.

In the field of supervision we have scarcely made a beginning in the preparation and selection of a body of educational leaders, and we are tied to present practices by a political string. In our lack of leadership we partake of a common weakness of democracy—that of emphasizing the importance of the masses and forgetting the leader who must lead and direct them. The soldier, the lawyer, the doctor, and the engineer have cast aside the apprenticeship and the successful-practitioner methods, but the educator has not evolved that far in his thinking as yet. Our pedagogical departments and the organized body of our pedagogical knowledge are too recent to have reached the point of general use and application. We are in education where the army and navy were before West Point and Annapolis, and where the engineer, the doctor, and the lawyer were a generation ago, before the development of modern professional schools for the training of leaders in these fields. Yet leaders must be trained for work in education, as in these other professional fields, if we are to make any great and worthy progress in the future.

In the matter of examinations, there is great need of our decreasing the emphasis which we now place on the written test. We could greatly improve our certificating systems by erecting certain educational prerequisites and accepting evidence of education in lieu of at least part of the examinations. As fast as can be done, the periodical written examination ought to be diminished in importance as a means of recruiting our teaching force. We ought to insist more and more on securing the educated and trained teacher instead of the raw recruit. Not only should the number of examinations be decreased, but teachers of training or of long and satisfactory experience ought to be relieved of the necessity of frequent tests. There is no valid excuse, for example, for compelling a graduate of a state normal school to pass a county examination before she can teach. If her normal-school diploma does not stand for better education and better professional preparation than the county exami-

nation represents, and if she is not superior to the untrained product of the county examination method, then it is time either to renovate the normal schools of the state and put in a corps of teachers who can produce a better output, or to abolish them entirely and save an unnecessary expense.

The securing of the educated and trained teacher instead of the raw recruit is, however, an economic problem as well as an educational one, though this economic problem has an educational aspect as well. There never can be high educational standards for teachers in such states as Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Missouri, or Kansas—states using the very objectionable census basis for the apportionment of their school funds, and raising but a small general tax—until there is a radical reform in the methods of raising school funds and of apportioning the funds after they have been raised. I have pointed this out in such detail elsewhere<sup>1</sup> that I need only mention it here. There are, in their ultimate analysis, but three primary problems in education. The first is that of how properly to finance a school system. The second is how to secure a trained teaching force for it. The third is how to supervise it to produce leaders for its management and improvement. The financial one always underlies the other two.

By way of giving concreteness to these suggestions, we will indicate a possible general plan for certification, based on the best of our current practice and theory. While not claiming that the proposed plan is perfect, we nevertheless feel that it, or its substantial equivalent, could be somewhat generally adopted with the greatest advantage to our educational work. The aim of the plan is the ultimate establishment and maintenance of high standards for our teaching work, and the method by which it is proposed to attain such standards is that of gradually raising requirements, and thus gradually cutting off the great mass of poorly educated and poorly trained teachers who today work on low standards, work for small wages, and too often serve to discredit the name and work of a teacher.

<sup>1</sup> *School Funds and Their Apportionment*, by Ellwood P. Cubberley, Teachers College. "Columbia University Contributions to Education," Vol. II, 1905; 255 pp.; \$1.50.

## PROPOSED PLAN FOR THE CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS

## A. TYPES OF CERTIFICATES

Five types of certificates shall be provided for, as follows:

- I. *Elementary-School Certificate.*
- II. *High-School Certificates.*
- III. *Special Certificates.*
- IV. *Supervisory Certificates.*
- V. *State Life-Certificates.*

- I. **ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL CERTIFICATE.**—Good only for teaching in the first nine grades of the public schools, but not good for the ninth grade if the same is part of an organized high school.

This certificate to be (at first) of three grades, as follows:

1. *Third-grade elementary certificate.*—To be granted only upon examination. Subjects to be all the common-school branches, English composition, civics, physiology and hygiene, and the principles of teaching and school management. Certificate good for one year, and only in the county where issued.

Intended as a trial certificate, not renewable, and not more than two such certificates to be granted to any applicant. Success while teaching under this to be considered in granting future certificates.

(Such a certificate ought not to be granted at all, but is included as a concession to present practice in so many of our states. As soon as the question of taxation and appropriation of funds can be attended to, this certificate ought to be abolished entirely. The first step would be to provide that not more than one such certificate should be granted to any applicant, the second step to provide that it should not be valid to teach in any city or town graded school or any rural school enrolling over twenty-five pupils, and the third step would be to abolish it entirely.)

2. *Second-grade elementary certificate.*—To be granted upon an examination on all the subjects required for a third-grade certificate, and, in addition, algebra or geometry, elements of bookkeeping, physical geography and the elements of one other science, and those parts of the school law which have to do with the relations of teachers to pupils, parents, and school officers.



Good in the county where issued, and optional recognition in other counties of the same state. No interstate recognition of this certificate. Good for two years, and renewable for three-year periods, without examination, if the teaching continues to be satisfactory to the supervisor.

This certificate to be granted also, without examination, to the graduates of the state normal schools within the state, and to the graduates of accredited normal schools from without the state, where the normal-school training is based on a common-school education, and hence has not been preceded by a high-school training.

(In time to come this certificate should be abolished also. The first step would be to refuse to renew it without a new examination, and to limit it strictly to the county where issued. California reached the point, in 1901, where a certificate somewhat equivalent to this could be entirely abolished, and it was done.)

3. *First-grade elementary certificate*.—To be granted upon an examination on all the subjects required for the second-grade certificate, and, in addition, vocal music, drawing, general history, English and American literature, one additional science, and one other subject of high-school rank to be determined by the candidate.

This certificate not to be granted to any applicant who has not had either at least two years of successful experience as a teacher, or normal-school training as required for the certificate.

This certificate to be good in any county of the state, to be issued for five- or six-year periods, and to be renewable, without examination, so long as the holder continues to teach or to be engaged in educational work. Full interstate recognition of this certificate.

Successful teachers, holding live second-grade certificates, may, on recommendation of the supervisor, be credited with all the subjects required for a second-grade certificate, and be granted a first-grade certificate on passing a satisfactory examination on the additional subjects.

This certificate to be granted also, without examination, to the graduate of any state normal school within the

state, and to the graduates of accredited normal schools without the state, where the normal-school training has been of not less than two years' duration and based upon a full four-year high-school course, or its equivalent in a private institution; and also to the graduates of accredited colleges and universities who have also completed a normal-school course intended for college graduates, and who intend to teach in the elementary school.

In the case of normal-school and college graduates who have not had two years of experience as a teacher, this certificate to be issued at first for two years only. If recommended as successful, then the certificate to be renewed for five- or six-year periods, as indicated above.

(In time, this should come to be the only elementary-school certificate granted, and it should be recognized between states as freely as between counties within the state.)

4. *Examinations for these certificates.*—Examinations for these certificates should be given in each county, on questions uniform throughout the state, and not oftener than four times a year. Whether these examinations should be under the control of the state board of education or the county superintendent is not of fundamental importance. As soon as the number entering teaching on credentials will warrant, the examinations ought to be reduced to twice a year, say December and July, and later they can be reduced to once a year, which should be in the summer. When the number taking these examinations has been so reduced that many counties have no applicants, and most of the others only a few, as is the case now in California, then the state board of education should take charge of the examinations and arrange for them to be held at a stated time each year, and at only five or six places in the state.

- II. **HIGH-SCHOOL CERTIFICATES.**—Good for teaching in any regular high school, six-year high school, or the seventh and eighth grades in graded city schools. May also be accepted by a county superintendent for elementary-school work in his county. This certificate to be, at first, of two grades, as follows:

1. *Second-grade high-school certificate*.—To be granted on the presentation of evidence that the applicant has taught successfully at least one year, and has completed at least two years of study beyond a full high-school course in some reputable college or university, and on a written examination covering (1) oral and written English; (2) two lines of high-school work which the candidate is prepared to teach; and (3) the general theory of secondary education, the theory and methods of instruction in the two lines of work offered, and class management.

This certificate to be issued at first for two years. If the candidate is reported as a satisfactory high-school teacher, it may be renewed for three-year periods, without examination, so long as the holder continues to teach. Optional recognition between counties, but good only in "non-commissioned" high schools or "unaccredited" ones, or for grade work, as indicated or accepted.

(This certificate in the nature of a transition certificate, while the state is growing used to the idea of a separate high-school certificate. At first, it might be necessary to accept normal-school training as a substitute for the required college work, but this is inadvisable. As soon as the supply of college-trained teachers equals the demand, this certificate ought to be abandoned entirely.)

2. *First-grade high-school certificates*.—To be granted on the presentation of evidence of having completed a full college course in some reputable college or university, and of having made preparation to teach one or more lines of high-school work. The diploma of graduation to be accepted as evidence of general academic preparation, but the candidate must also either—

- a) Pass a written examination on the general theory of secondary education; the purpose and methods of instruction in the subject or subjects he has prepared to teach; and class management, or
- b) Submit a satisfactory recommendation from the faculty of the institution in which he secured his training to the effect that he has satisfactorily completed such pedagogical courses. This exemption from the peda-

gological examination to expire after two years, unless the candidate engages in teaching or some form of educational work.

This certificate to be issued at first for two years. If the candidate is reported as a satisfactory teacher, then the certificate to be renewed for five- or six-year periods, and to be valid so long as the holder continues to teach or to be engaged in educational work. This certificate to be good in any county in the state, and to be recognized freely between states. Good in any kind of a high school.

(California has gone even farther. The number of properly certificated high-school teachers was so in excess of the demand that in 1905 the requirements were raised to include one year of graduate study.)

3. *Examinations for high-school certificates.*—No examinations to be given by which a teacher can secure a high-school certificate *wholly* on the basis of an examination. The educational prerequisite must be insisted upon. The examinations as provided for above to be given not oftener than twice a year. (Later this ought to be reduced to one examination, held in the summer.) These examinations should be under the control of the state board of education or examiners, or the state superintendent, as county boards will frequently find difficulty in examining candidates for this certificate. The questions and grading should be uniform throughout the state, the county superintendent acting for the state authorities in giving the examinations and transmitting the papers.

III. SPECIAL CERTIFICATES.—In recognition of certain special lines of school work, a few special certificates will need to be granted.

1. *Kindergarten certificates.*—To be granted to those who hold or secure a first-grade elementary certificate, or who present evidence showing that they are graduates of an accredited normal school, or of a four-year high school (or an equivalent private school), and who present satisfactory evidence that they have completed a kindergarten training-

course in a state normal school or in a reputable private kindergarten training-school.

Certificates granted at first for two years, and on satisfactory evidence of successful teaching to be renewable for five- to six-year periods so long as the holder continues to teach. Valid in any county of the state, and optional interstate recognition.

2. *Special certificates*.—To be granted to those who hold or secure a first-grade certificate, or who present satisfactory evidence that they are graduates of an accredited normal school, or of a four-year high school, and who, in addition, present satisfactory evidence of having made special preparation to teach the special subject or subjects for which a certificate is asked.

Such special certificates to be granted at first for two years. If the candidate is reported as a satisfactory teacher, then the certificate to be renewable for five- or six-year periods, so long as the holder continues to teach.

Special certificates shall not be issued except for music, drawing, physical training, manual training, domestic science, instruction in special schools for the deaf and blind, and commercial, industrial, and technical work.

(It is very desirable to limit special certificates rather closely, and to insist on, as nearly as possible, the standards required of regular teachers in the same kind of school work. The great danger of the specially certificated teacher is that he may represent a decidedly lower general educational level than the regular teachers of the school. Special certificates should not be granted to teach the regular studies of a high-school course, but a general high-school certificate should be insisted upon.)

IV. *SUPERVISORY CERTIFICATES*.—These to be primarily for the encouragement and singling out of the educational leader, and to be of two grades, as follows:

1. *Second-grade supervisory certificate*.—To be granted to the graduate of any accredited normal school who has taught at least two years in the state where the certificate is issued, or to the holder of a first-grade certificate who has had at least thirty months of teaching experience, one-

half of which must have been in the state where the certificate is issued, and who, in addition, passes a satisfactory examination on educational psychology, the theory and administration of education, school hygiene, the history of the state's educational system, and the school law of the state, and who prepares a satisfactory thesis on one of a number of assigned topics. Said thesis is not expected to be "original" in its treatment, but should show grasp of the subject and power to think clearly.

Only one examination each year. This to be uniform throughout the state and under the direction of the state board of education, the state board of examiners, or the state superintendent.

This certificate to be issued for a five- or six-year period, and to be renewable, without examination, on the presentation of satisfactory evidence that the holder has been a successful principal or supervisor, so long as the holder continues to teach.

Certificates to be valid anywhere in the state, with optional interstate recognition. This certificate to be good for supervisory work or for any form of teaching for which a first-grade elementary certificate would be valid.

(This certificate is intended to recognize the successful practitioner who can give evidence that, by private study, he has kept himself abreast of the times.)

2. *First-grade supervisory certificate.*—To be granted to any teacher who has had at least two years of teaching experience, who holds a baccalaureate degree from a college requiring a four-year course, and who, in addition, either—
  - a) Submits a recommendation from the faculty of the college stating that he has completed a thorough pedagogical course of study which has included all the examination subjects required for a second-grade supervisory certificate, and, in the estimation of said faculty, is fitted to do supervisory work in the schools of the state; or
  - b) Passes the written pedagogical examination as required for a second-grade supervisory certificate. This cer-

tificate to have the same validity as the second-grade supervisory certificate, and in addition to be recognized freely between states.

- V. STATE LIFE-CERTIFICATES OR DIPLOMAS.—With the standards just given for first-grade certificates, state life-certificates become of much less importance and significance. Each of the higher grades of certificates so far given, with their general state validity and repeated renewals, is practically a life-certificate. Still, as these diplomas have a certain recognition and standing, it will be wise to continue them, though gradually raising the standards for granting them and making them stand for distinguished excellence.

These life-certificates should be of three forms, but be recognized as of somewhat equivalent rank and dignity. Each form of certificate to be for life, and to be good anywhere in the state, and for the same grade of instruction as local certificates of the same name. Such life-diplomas should be given full and complete interstate recognition.

But one examination to be given each year for these certificates. This to be given under the direction of the state superintendent or the state board of education, and at only a few places (eight to ten) in the state.

1. *State life elementary certificate.*—To be granted only to those who have taught at least fifty months, one-half of which has been in the state where the certificate is issued, and who have taught for at least two years on a first-grade elementary certificate. Adequate evidence of successful experience and professional growth must be submitted.

In addition, candidates must pass a written examination on educational psychology, the history of education, current theory, and problems of the elementary school, and prepare a short paper on some topic relating to method as applied to the elementary curriculum or to the theory of education as applied to the elementary school. A number of topics for this paper to be announced at the examination from which candidates may select.

2. *State life high-school certificates.*—To be granted only to those who have taught at least fifty months, one-half of

which has been in high-school work in the state where the certificate is issued, and who have been teaching for at least two years on a first-grade high-school certificate. Adequate evidence of successful experience and professional growth must be submitted.

In addition, candidates must pass a written examination on the history and theory of secondary education, present problems of secondary education (comparative as well as local), and prepare a paper of some length on one of a number of topics to be assigned at the time of the examination, covering some point in the method and purpose of instruction of some subject taught in the secondary school, or the general theory of secondary education.

3. *State life supervisory certificate*.—To be granted only to those who have taught at least fifty months, at least one-half of which has been as a principal or supervisor and on first- or second-grade supervisory certificate in the state where the certificate is issued. Adequate evidence of successful experience as a supervisor and of professional growth must be submitted.

In addition, candidates must pass a written examination on the history of education, the theory (or philosophy) of education, principles of city and state school administration, education in the leading European states as compared with America (general principles, based on assigned reading), and must prepare a paper of some length on one of a number of topics, submitted at the time of the examination, and covering some point in the administration or the theory of education.

#### B. CERTAIN FEATURES OF THE PLAN

- I. No city certificates to be issued, except perhaps in a few of our very largest cities. Cities must accept the state certificates, so far as they go, but are at liberty to refuse to employ those not holding first-grade certificates; and those not having had a certain degree of education, professional training, and teaching experience; and to subject those who meet these standards to a further professional and competitive test.



2. No temporary or special certificates to be issued except to those whose credentials would insure them a regular certificate, without examination, at the next meeting of the board of examiners or the county board of education.
3. No state professional certificates as distinguished from life diplomas, as the standards set for the first-grade certificate and their general state validity make a state professional certificate unnecessary.
4. Gradual separation and erection of a high-school certificate, based on education and training, and with no method of securing it *wholly* on examination.
5. Definite provision for the development of the educated leader as opposed to the successful practitioner.
6. Gradual curtailment of special and temporary certificates, and the insistence, as fast as possible, that the educational standard for these shall be somewhat equivalent to that demanded for regular certificates of equivalent grade.
7. Gradual curtailment of the number of examinations given for all grades of certificates, with a view to emphasizing training and education.
8. Abolition of all fees for examinations, certificates, or renewals. Evidence as to good moral character to be required for all forms of certificate.
9. Freeing the successful teacher from the necessity of continual re-examinations, so long as he (or she) continues to teach in a satisfactory manner, but limiting him in the matter of movement and availability for the best positions unless he obtains a high grade of certificate.
10. Close association of the supervisory and certifying functions, thus making reports as to a teacher's efficiency of some real value.
11. Providing for the renewal of certificates, after the probationary period has been passed, rather than granting full life-certification on any standard lower than that required for a state life-certificate. Under an adequate system of supervision the renewal could be made of educational significance. There would be no serious objection, however, to making a first-grade certificate a permanent county

- certificate, after the second renewal, valid so long as the holder continues to teach in the county.
12. The full recognition of normal-school and college diplomas, though at first for only temporary two-year certificates. After evidence of successful experience, these to guarantee the holder a long-time renewable certificate of general validity, which is practically a life-certificate.
  13. The recognition of normal-school and college diplomas of equal rank from other states, and on the same basis as similar local documents.
  14. As fast as can be done, our state normal schools should pass from an elementary-school to a high-school basis of admission, and then concentrate their efforts on giving two years of high-grade academic and professional training. This has already been accomplished in a few states and should be extended as rapidly as possible to all. The graduates of such schools would then receive first-grade certificates without examination.
  15. Full inter-county and interstate recognition, for teachers of experience, of all regular first-grade certificates.
  16. Recognition of equivalents and options in examinations, and in measuring the value of certificates from other states.

If some such plan for the certification of teachers were adopted generally by our leading states, it would be a most potent factor in the elevation and improvement of the schools of the entire country. The effect of such standards in California has been most beneficial from every point of view. Each increase of standards has been accompanied by certain "growing pains," but the result has soon demonstrated the wisdom of the action. Such doubtless will be the case elsewhere. A movement looking toward the general adoption of some such standards ought to be urged in our various state teachers' associations, and might well enlist the active efforts of our National Educational Association as well. It would be a cause worthy of their steel.

## DISCUSSION<sup>1</sup>

A REVIEW OF GEORGE P. BROWN'S "TEACHING OF ENGLISH," IN THE "FIFTH YEARBOOK" PART I

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It is somewhat difficult to write a critical review of a paper in which the author expressly states (pp. 10, 11) that his discussion is not addressed to those who object to "confounding metaphysics with psychology;" in which one who enters any such objection is at once classified with those who "crucified, in fact or in spirit, Galileo, Copernicus, Luther, Socrates, Darwin, Jesus of Nazareth." And it is still more difficult to write a criticism when one esteems highly the author of the paper and recognizes the great worth of his services to the cause in which both author and critic are engaged. Yet it seems necessary, in this case, to record a protest against certain aspects of Mr. Brown's paper.

### I

The fundamental idea in Mr. Brown's paper is that no one can be as efficient as a teacher ought to be unless he has a "view of the world" (pp. 5, 15, 61). In the ordinary meaning of this phrase, everybody has "a view of the world," even very young children. This fact is explicable in terms of the tendency of the mind (partly conscious and partly unconscious) to combine its experiences into some sort of unity, to bring everything known into relation. This tendency is the germ of philosophy, but it is not philosophy any more than a child's cooing and kicking are singing and walking. Mr. Brown takes it for granted that "a view of the world" is the same as a completely elaborated system of philosophy. His whole treatment implies that the teaching of English (and of other subjects?) can be of no avail unless every step of it proceeds from a philosophy to which the secrets of star-dust are as open as is the falling of leaves to the ordinary man.

We are asked by Mr. Brown to think of the universe as "a process composed of an infinite number of processes" (p. 5). These processes seem to be reducible to Source, Separation, and Return (p. 8). It is easy to think of vapor rising from the ocean, falling upon the earth, and returning to the ocean; and easy, also, to name these stages as above. But one might just as

<sup>1</sup>Requested by the Editor.

easily start with clouds as the Source and complete the cycle back to cloud again, so that what we called Source is simply the point of departure in our own thinking. When, however, the author says, "The solar system rises from star-dust and is to pass on into star-dust again," it is not so easy to follow. But, granting for the sake of argument that this is another case of Source, Separation, and Return, the cycle will have to keep repeating itself in order to be a *process* at all. This isn't much of an explanation of the universe after all, for it simply says that the cycle will never cease—without explaining anything.

But beyond this first "cycle interpretation" is another, viz., "the Absolute Cycle, from which all minor processes spring, is the Absolute Ego or Person" (p. 9). This is nothing more than the assertion that a dynamic God is the center, circumference, and area of all that is. All this may be assented to, but what of it? One is simply back to the conception of all that has been, is, and is to be as proceeding from a Source that is not different from the Separation and Return before mentioned. To this conception regarded as a matter of faith there is and can be no objection. As a preliminary postulate for philosophizing about the origin and destiny of the world, there is no objection to it—if the one who makes it enjoys it. But to call this conception "scientific" is to lapse mentally into an inability to distinguish between that which is verifiable and that which is simply postulated. It is true that scientists make use of hypotheses, but it does not follow that all hypotheses made or believed by scientists are verifiable. The "power of correct prophecy is the test of scientific knowledge and . . . verifiability by any competent observer is its diagnostic symptom."<sup>2</sup> Iteration, even with solemn emphasis and full belief, is not proof; hence, the repetition by Mr. Brown of this notion of the Absolute Cycle really weakens his argument.

Still more startling is the "fact" which Mr. Brown infers by "what seems (to him?) to be a scientific procedure," that "the human soul is the active agency by which the cycle of the universe is to be finally completed." This bald and incomprehensible statement is prepared for by the assertion that this inference follows "from the acknowledged facts above set forth" (p. 9). It seems to me that the facts to which he refers (Absolute Cycle, minor processes, Source, Separation, Return, etc., with their metaphysical implications) are neither "facts" nor "acknowledged." Mr. Brown realizes that few people appreciate the fact that they are "the active agency by which the cycle of the universe is to be finally completed;" and so, in order to make the "fact" still more obvious (?), he says: "God, the world, and man are all one psychical process, no arc of which is any more illusion than

<sup>2</sup> E. L. Thorndike, *Fifth Yearbook*, p. 81; read also p. 82.

any other" (p. 9). In this unity everything finds its matrix; in this psychical process all distinctions are dissolved. To quote (p. 10): "We repeat that the Absolute Psyche is identical with the limited psyche, in some degree, in every object of nature and in every human soul." In this quotation we are again given repetition instead of proof.

Philosophy, even of the speculative sort, has a value for human life. It is the outcome of reflection, experience, and the fundamental tendency to form "a view of the world." However valuable and inevitable this philosophic activity may be in our species, it does not follow that its outcome, in the child or in the adult, is scientific. Therefore, it seems to me that in his "point of view" (pp. 5-11) Mr. Brown has confused the vague, impressionistic "view of the world" which most people have with "philosophy" in the more technical sense of an "explanation of the world-problem;" and also confused "philosophic," in the latter sense, with "scientific." This confusion of terms not only obscures the view itself, but also provokes doubt of its validity. It may be that Mr. Brown's argument is so deep that we who have not been chastened by the acceptance of animism or pantheism as fundamental truths are unable to follow it, because the scales have not fallen from our eyes. Or, it may be, there are "errors of refraction" in the mental make-up of all of us.

## II

The "point of view" which identifies God, the world, and man "as one psychical process" prepares the way for Mr. Brown's "genetic psychology." The "one psychical process" in the form of instinct (life within?) leads each individual to a "series of psychical changes which repeat the psychical changes in the growth of the race." Feeling, memory, imitation, imagination, love of power, etc., are the outflow of the "Absolute Psyche." It is difficult to accept this idea and reconcile it with the further idea (pp. 12, 15) that there are negative tendencies toward degeneration. If it be true that the Absolute Psyche repeats itself in everything that is, then how can we explain these downward tendencies? We must not think of them as extraneous to the absolute. We are forced, then, to think of an Absolute that has to degenerate in order that it may develop, or to think that degeneration and development are the same to the absolute. The "genetic idea" to which this leads is that "all is well."

Mr. Brown practically commits himself to "an evolution which is directed by a purpose," and assures us that this is not a "new view to the modern scientist." My acquaintance with the writings of Huxley, Darwin, and Spencer—three modern scientists—has never hinted to me that these men accepted, as basic truth, the conception of an evolution which is directed by a purpose, except as the progress of man is regarded as evolution. To

admit an evolution with an advantageous outcome in some cases and a disadvantageous outcome in other cases is to deny that a purpose is back of all evolution, or is to admit that degeneration and development are the same in meaning. To regard the movements of wind-driven, withered leaves as comparable to the movements of a man in building a house is hopelessly to confuse the term "purpose." To say that the disintegration of exposed sandstone and the painting of a picture are guided by purpose is to befuddle thinking. This may be allowable as a case of "poetic license," but it cannot pass current for scientific thinking. And while we may be entertained by the bold speculations of scientists and philosophers, we must stick to the verifiability of theories as a test of their scientific character.

Mr. Brown's confusion of the speculative with the scientific leads him to assert that memory "has ever been present on the evolutionary journey from star-dust to child, being the force of gravity which holds the universe together and becoming conscious first as feeling" (p. 13). Reduced to syllogistic form the argument is:

Gravity holds things together.

Memory holds things together.

Therefore, memory and gravity are basally one.

The fallacy of such a syllogism is too evident to require any comment.

There is a genetic psychology, but it is not at all evident that the "Absolute Psyche" in its "minor processes," as set forth by Mr. Brown, is a scientific explanation of developing mind; for it seems that the character of the stimuli brought to bear upon the child brings about, through the child's reactions, not only a direction of growth, but also, by modifying the child's mind, brings into existence an organization of mind that would otherwise not have been.

The fundamental objections to Mr. Brown's genetic psychology are (1) that by charging it all to the nature of the Absolute Psyche he cannot explain the dualism involved in his use of the terms "degeneration" and "development," and (2) that, therefore, the formative influence of experience of different types is practically ignored.

### III

How Mr. Brown's bold speculations connect with his analysis of method of teaching English in the schools is as difficult to comprehend as is his metaphysics. When he says, "The prevailing conscious attitude of the pupil in every grade must be a desire to attain an end. The primary function of the school is to supply the environment that will awaken the desire" (p. 63), we not only agree, we applaud. We are relieved to discover that we can comprehend this truth without pretending to know anything about "star-

dust" or the "Absolute Psyche." We are pained to find no reference to the social environment as a factor in the growth of language and in the awakening of desire in the child. We can even agree with what is said about grammar (pp. 64, 65), if we can do so without committing ourselves to the view that by judgment "the instinctive soul of the world comes into consciousness of itself" (p. 6).

A scientific method is usually inductive; i. e., it proceeds from known facts to their underlying principles. Mr. Brown reverses the process, and is therefore essentially deductive in his entire argument. He fails to show how his "point of view" works out into plans for teaching English in the schools. The metaphysics and pedagogy are as unlike and as unrelated as if they had been written by different men—one a speculative soul with poetic instincts, and the other a hard-headed, successful teacher who had learned by experience. Had Mr. Brown given us his pedagogy of teaching English first, and then showed us how this pedagogy involved the particular modification of the philosophy of Plotinus which he accepts, more of us might have followed him, and all of us would have recognized the scientific method.

The great element of variability in all speculative solutions of the world-problem renders metaphysics a shifting sand, rather than a solid rock upon which to build a body of educational principles. If we must understand the genesis and destiny of all that is before we can do anything that is worth while, the actual workers in the educational field would better quit.



















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